DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 226 308 CG 016 582

AUTHOR Eyde, Donna R.; Fink, Albert H.
TITLE Don't Do That! And Other Counseling Strategies for the Chronically Disruptive.
INSTITUTION ERIC Clearinghouse on Counseling and Personnel Services, Ann Arbor, Mich.
SPONS AGENCY National Inst. of Education (ED), Washington, DC.
PUB DATE 83
CONTRACT 400-78-0005
NOTE 100p.
AVAILABLE FROM ERIC/CAPS, 2108 School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, MI 48109 ($10.00).
PUB TYPE Guides - Non-Classroom Use (055) -- Information Analyses - ERIC Information Analysis Products (071) -- Reports - Descriptive (141)

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC04 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS *Behavior Problems; Change Strategies; *Classroom Techniques; Consultation Programs; *Counseling Techniques; Counselor Role; Cultural Differences; Elementary Secondary Education; *Problem Children; Program Descriptions; School Counselors; School Security; Student Adjustment; *Student Behavior; Student Motivation
IDENTIFIERS *Disruptive Behavior

ABSTRACT

This monograph, designed to aid school counselors in their work with students and classroom teachers, reviews the multiple causes of school disturbance and the varied needs of students labeled chronically disruptive. The distinction between chronic disrupters and students with emotional problems is discussed; related issues of school violence, vandalism, and gang delinquency are excluded in order to concentrate on methods and techniques for identification of and intervention with the chronically disruptive. Past and current perspectives on school disruption are explored, and counseling techniques applicable to the chronic disrupter are described in detail in the areas of curriculum modification, management alternatives, and motivational differences. Strategies for counseling culturally different students and for influencing system level change are described. Preventive and anticipatory counseling for distressed students and distressed teachers is also examined. Gaps in preservice and inservice counselor training are briefly discussed, but working with the student, classmates, and classroom teachers from a systems theory view of school ecology is emphasized. A bibliography is provided at the end of each chapter. (JAC)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED226308

DON'T DO THAT!

and other

COUNSELING STRATEGIES FOR THE CHRONICALLY DISRUPTIVE

by

Donna R. Eyde

and

Albert H. Fink

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

✓ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official NIE position or policy.

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

ERIC/CAPS

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

Contributors

Catherine G. DeSalvo, M.A., M.S. (Affective Education)

Donna R. Eyde, Ph.D., and Jean Dickenson, R.T. (Leisure Education)

Diane J. Fox, M.S. (Bibliotherapy)

Michael L. Riley, M.Ed. (Culturally Different Students)

CG 016582

Man is in the world and his ecology is the nature of his "inness"...what does he do there in nature? What does nature do in him? What is the nature of the transaction?

P. Shephard & A. McKinley
The Subversive Science
1969

The National Institute of Education

This publication was prepared with funding from the National Institute of Education, U.S. Department of Education under contract no. 400-78-0005. The opinions expressed in this report do not necessarily reflect the positions or policies of NIE or the Department of Education.

ERIC COUNSELING AND PERSONNEL SERVICES CLEARINGHOUSE
School of Education
The University of Michigan
Ann Arbor, Michigan 48109
Published by ERIC/CAPS
1983

TABLE OF CONTENTS

About the Authors i

Introduction 1

Nature and Characteristics of Behavioral Problems 5

Past and Emerging Perspectives on School Disruption 13

Counselors as Protectors, Interpreters, Adjusters and Translators 19
- Counselor and Community
- Parents and Teachers
- Classmates

Counselors as Assessors of School Disruption: Ecological Assessment 27

Counselors as Educators: Curriculum (Task) Modifications 33
- Affective Education
- Career Education
- Leisure Education

Counselors as Educators: Management (Response) Alternatives 47
- Behavioral Analysis Modification
- Cognitive Restructuring and Self-Talk Techniques
- Physical Management and Prosthetic Environments

Counselors as Educators: Motivational (Reward) Alternatives 59
- Videotherapy
- Bibliotherapy
- Remediation Reading Failures

Counseling Culturally Different Students 71

Preventive and Anticipatory Counseling Strategies 81

A Postscript: Implications for Preservice and Inservice Training 91

Summary 95

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Donna R. Eyde is Director of Educational Therapy at the Nebraska Psychiatric Institute and Associate Professor in the Department of Psychiatry, University of Nebraska Medical Center. A graduate of the University of Missouri-Columbia, she has taught at the University of Missouri, at William Woods College in Missouri, and at Indiana University, Bloomington. Dr. Eyde has published extensively and presented papers both nationally and internationally on the special needs of special learners. Her first writing for ERIC/CAPS was "Counseling the Emotionally Disturbed" in L. Benjamin and G. R. Walz (Eds.), *Counseling Exceptional People*.

Dr. Eyde's professional responsibilities include supervision of the Educational Therapy Clinic and Research Center in Omaha. This is a specialized, multidisciplinary program for delayed and disturbed learners serving approximately 150 school-aged students per year. In addition to therapeutic education for the child, adolescent and young adult, the Clinic provides practicum experiences for counselors, special educators and related professionals in health care areas.

ABOUT THE AUTHORS

Albert H. Fink is Professor of Special Education and Coordinator of Programs in Behavior Disorders at Indiana University, Bloomington. A graduate of the University of Michigan's Combined Programs in Education and Psychology, Dr. Fink has devoted his professional life to the complex educational and treatment problems of the behaviorally disordered. His specialized research interests have been teacher-student interactive processes and their implications for effective classroom intervention and behavior management. He has published extensively on the subject in articles, chapters and research monographs.

Dr. Fink has served as President of the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders and in 1975 founded its official journal, *Behavior Disorders*. He has also been actively involved in international special education as a teacher of comparative special education (behavior disorders) in the Indiana University Scotland Program. In addition, Dr. Fink has served the Council of Exceptional Children as Chairman of its International Relations Committee with an active role in the planning and implementation of the Council's First World Congress.

DON'T DO THAT!
and other
COUNSELING STRATEGIES FOR THE CHRONICALLY DISRUPTIVE

Donna R. Eyde and Albert H. Fink

This text reviews the multiple causes of school disturbances and the varied needs of students labeled chronically disruptive. A number of counseling techniques applicable to this population are described in terms of curriculum modification, management alternatives, and motivational differences. Strategies for counseling culturally different students and for influencing system level change are explored. Preventive and anticipatory counseling for distressed students and distressed teachers is also suggested. Related issues of school violence, vandalism, gang delinquency, and mental illness are excluded in order to concentrate on identification of and intervention with the chronically disruptive. Gaps in preservice and inservice training are briefly examined, but the emphasis of this text is on working with the student, classmates, and classroom teachers from a systems theory view of school ecology. A bibliography is provided at the end of each chapter.

INTRODUCTION

Today's children, it seems, have developed a truly impressive number of behaviors for disrupting the teaching/learning process--strange noises, body sounds, pencil drums, chewing gum tricks, forgotten workbooks, flying objects, punches, pinches, kicks, grabs, tardiness, truancy and four-letter words carved, whispered or shouted out. Chronic classroom disturbances, hallway assaults, and building vandalism are currently retarding academic progress in significant ways. Parents are demanding more school-centered discipline. Principals are demanding more classroom-based control and teachers are demanding more administrative support. The general public is demanding more for less. Commissioned task forces point to the need for systemic changes in the educational process. Mental health experts acknowledge that schooling may be injurious to the health of students and of teachers. These are the times in which school counselors find themselves as the guardians of emotional growth and adjustment; consequently, counselors are variously admonished to be child change agents, ecosystem managers, and behavioral engineers.

The causes of school disturbances are multiple and the needs of the value violators labeled chronically disruptive are varied. There are students who don't know how to behave, those who can't, and those who don't care. At best, school disturbances represent a complex problem that must be solved simultaneously on several levels. Youth alienation, unemployment, dropouts, suicide, acts of violence, substance abuses, divorces, disorganized families, disenfranchised minorities, and adult illiteracy reflect a malaise within the larger social order. However, each school system appears to have its individual and relatively static level of problem behaviors that are created and maintained in part by the particular social system of that school (Rogeness, Bednar, & Diesenhaus, 1974). Disturbing behavior and deviant academic achievement in a given classroom and in a given school result from and are maintained by the ecology of that educational setting. As Howard (1980) suggests, "In short, it is the system which includes the child that has failed, not the child alone. Interdependent interpersonal processes which include the assigned roles and functions of administrators, teachers and pupils (as well as school psychologists), the academic and behavioral demands of the setting, and the skills and competencies that the child brings to the situation are all viewed as parts of the ecological system that has produced and maintained the deviant social or academic behavior in the school" (pp. 6-7).

Behavior in any system is subject to multiple determined influences; however, behavior is always evaluated within a specific environmental context. Behavior is labeled disruptive or disturbing with reference to a given social system or subsystem. Disruptions may be more or less single, isolated incidents, or they may represent a fairly constant mode of communication within a given social system or subsystem.

Rivers (1977) points out that the chief violator of the classroom subsystem rules and hence the chronic disrupter of classroom order is the "child who cannot be classified as emotionally disturbed or mentally retarded, who is neither neurotic nor psychotic. In most cases the child is not generally delinquent or criminally inclined; however from the teacher's viewpoint, the child is a periodic disruptive force within the learning environment" (p. 7). This distressed youngster, according to Rivers, has adopted disruptive behaviors as a mode of communication within the classroom. The disruption is an "adaptive" response to the felt frustration and anxiety surrounding the classroom demands.

There are prodigious lists of descriptive behaviors replete with consistency indexes and standardized behavioral rating scales to characterize the child who frequently and relatively consistently "acts out" in the school setting. The very term "acting out" suggests that the behavioral responses are directed outwardly and include exhibited physical and verbal aggression, destruction of classroom materials, and expressed negativism and non-compliance.

If the child has developed disruptive responses to the learning task demand, the system as a whole has failed. It would appear that approximately 20% of the school-aged population are currently experiencing sufficient mismatch between their academic and social skills and classroom demands as to be classified as marginally adjusted (Eyde, 1980). Within that group of 20%, a number of uncounted youngsters will select classroom disruption as a predominant mode of communication. If stresses and conflicts are high in the learning environment and individual coping responses are minimal, then distressed youngsters will act out. The emotional adjustment of any student is a "living interaction that changes with adjustive resources and stress" (Reinert, 1980, p. 7). Punishment, suspension or expulsion are often used to restore bulance within the school environment. These choices rarely decrease either the frustration or the behavior. In actuality, the chronically disruptive child should be the focus of special management techniques and the recipient of special counseling efforts.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Eyde, D. R. Counseling the emotionally disturbed. In L. Benjamin & G. R. Walz (Eds.), Counseling exceptional people. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan, ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse, 1980.

Howard, J. S. Systems intervention and school psychology. Paper presented at the 4th International Colloquium in School Psychology, Jerusalem, June-July, 1980.

Reinert, H. R. Children in conflict. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1980.

Rivers, L. W. The disruptive student and the teacher. Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1977.

Rogeness, G. A., Bednar, R. A., & Diesenhaus, H. The social system and children's behavior problems. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1974, 44(4), 497-502.

Shephard, P., & McKinley, A. The subversive science. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1969.

NATURE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF BEHAVIORAL PROBLEMS

At times, it is difficult to differentiate students who are experiencing developmental and/or situational stressors from students who are suffering more serious emotional handicaps. The observed disruptive surface behaviors can be quite similar. Both groups of disturbing youngsters are experiencing classroom conflict. As Reinert (1980) observed, the child in conflict is a student who is experiencing a mismatch between the degree of stress inherent in schooling demands and the individual adjustive resources for meeting those varied demands. Acting out behaviors are only one manifestation of conflict; others include withdrawing, defensive, and disorganized or out-of-touch behaviors. The child in conflict is described as follows:

> The child whose manifest behavior has a deleterious effect on his or her personal or educational development and/or the personal or educational development of his or her peers. Negative effects may vary considerably from one child to another in terms of severity and prognosis. (Reinert, 1980, p. 5)

Emotionally disturbed students are usually characterized by more inner tension, anxiety about their behavior, and serious difficulties with affect. The chronically disruptive child, on the other hand, is characterized by delays or deficits in socialization and lacks the interpersonal communication skills for satisfying socioaffective transactions in the classroom.

Smith and Neisworth (1975) differentiate between those students who should be defined as socially maladjusted by concluding that although emotionally disturbed youngsters exhibit excessively aggressive or withdrawn behavior, their central problem is not violation of social roles or rules. In contrast, Graubard (1973) does not see the necessity of differentiating the emotionally handicapped from the socially maladjusted. He defines behavioral disabilities as "a variety of excessive, chronic, deviant behaviors ranging from impulsive and aggressive to depressive and withdrawal acts (1) which violate the perceiver's expectation of appropriateness; and (2) which the perceiver wishes to see stopped" (p. 246).

Predelinquent behavior and juvenile delinquency are also often included in discussions of disturbing behaviors. These descriptors are applied to youngsters who

have been adjudicated already or whose behaviors are violating the law and leading to possible adjudication. A contrasting example of predelinquent chronic disruption and emotional disturbance is illustrated on Table 1. Still other authors (Stainback & Stainback, 1980) differentiate behavioral impairments based on subjective indices of severity including the frequency, intensity, consistency, or duration and spread of the disruptive behaviors. Kauffman (1977) proposed the following definition:

> Children with behavior disorders are those who chronically and markedly respond to their environment in socially unacceptable and/or personally unsatisfying ways but who can be taught more socially acceptable and personally gratifying behaviors. Children with mild and moderate behavior disorders can be taught effectively with their normal peers (if their teachers receive appropriate consultative help). . . .Children with severe and profound behavior disorders require intensive and prolonged intervention. (p. 23)

Quay (1972) and his associates have taken an empirical approach to classification of school-related problem behaviors. They identified four behavioral patterns that are fairly stable and pervasive among school-aged youngsters: (1) conduct disorders, characterized by restlessness, attention seeking, disruptiveness, boisterousness, disobedience, irresponsibility, temper tantrums, fighting, bossiness and destructiveness; (2) personality disorders, marked by fearfulness, passivity, social isolation, shyness, anxiety, low self-esteem, self-consciousness and limited verbal responsiveness; (3) inadequate/immature, characterized by clumsiness, passivity, day dreaming, sluggishness, reticence, disinterest and failure to complete work; and (4) socialized delinquency, marked by truancy, gang norm-violations and rule-breaking.

Kirk and Gallagher (1979) concluded from a cluster analysis that for the most part, school maladjustment could be divided into two major groups:

> The first is an impulsive, hyperactive anti-social pattern that, at its most extreme, becomes dangerous to others and is labeled delinquent behavior. The second pattern is of a fearful, withdrawn, unhappy child with many vague concerns and anxieties. The more extreme version of that pattern is the autistic or schizophrenic child. (p. 425)

What emerges from this cluster approach to maladjustment classification are individual personality styles along a continuum from passive to active and socialization processes ranging from undersocialized to inappropriately socialized, as illustrated in

Table I

Comparative Traits

CD	ED
Behavior is a consciously manipulative, opportunistic attempt to "control" teachers, parents and other school personnel.	Behavior is a reaction to perceived stress; uncontrollable, non-manipulative.
Reality testing OK--generally good insight, evaluates the situation--"knows" what's going on.	Impaired/distorted reality orientation--poor insight, misreads cues, overreacts, can't evaluate realistically--jumps to quick conclusions.
Low anxiety, not threatened nor concerned with consequences, generally "in control" (alternative manipulation tactics may include "blowing up").	High anxiety, easily upset, worried about potential consequences; guilt ridden.
Good ego strength, inner resources to draw upon; flexibility in situational responses.	Inadequate ego strength, poor self-concept, few inner resources--vulnerable, inflexible.
Sees others as the problem--no need to change self.	Wants to change to reduce anxiety and is hampered by distorted perceptions and lack of inner resources.
Demands options, opportunity to "decide own fate".	Responds best to highly structured environment with few choices/clear expectations.
Character disorder classification; sociopathic or unsocialized aggressive personality.	Personality disorder classification; neurotic/psychotic.

Adapted from D. Dierks, Comparative traits. Unpublished mimeograph, 1980. (Cedar Falls, Iowa, Area 7, Program for the Chronically Disruptive Youth.)

Figure 1. All groups of youngsters whose behaviors are near the intersect on the grid experience very restricted personal comfort zones in dealing with socioaffective transactions, especially in the school environment.

Differentiation diagnoses of behavioral clusters have not been empirically shown to lead to successful differential interventions. However, cluster characteristics of severity of disturbance, e.g., mild, moderate, or severe, experientially suggest different modes of treatment. Most students who are seriously or severely disturbed require interventions aimed at reconstruction of inner psychological and/or biophysical functions. Mildly and moderately disturbed youngsters benefit from respite and repair of ecosystem mismatches.

The observable behaviors of distressed students identified as chronically disruptive are, for the most part, characterized by (1) physical and verbal aggression toward classmates, (2) verbal aggression toward teachers and other authority figures, (3) refusal to cooperate or freely participate in group activities, (4) intentional destruction of learning materials, and (5) a variety of non-compliant and inappropriate behaviors which disorder the learning environment (Rivers, 1977). The underlying emotional tone as well as the frequency, consistency, intensity and seriousness of the disruption suggest that the chronically disruptive youngster has selected acting out as the major mode of communicating distress about schooling requirements and regulations.

There is evidence that the adaptive abilities involved in demonstrating empathy, taking the role of the other, and having close confidants appear to be lacking or underdeveloped in the chronically disruptive. Generally, poor social acceptance and poor academic performance, especially in the area of reading, are concomitants of classroom disruption. Failed and/or inadequate socialization is similarly evident in chronic violation of the values, norms and folkways that regulate school cultures. For some of these students less aggressive and more appropriate responses may not be in their behavioral repertoire or are only partially available. If more adaptive responses have been learned, they may not be valued by the child or the child's family. Still other youngsters may be merely mirroring subcultural normative behaviors in the school setting.

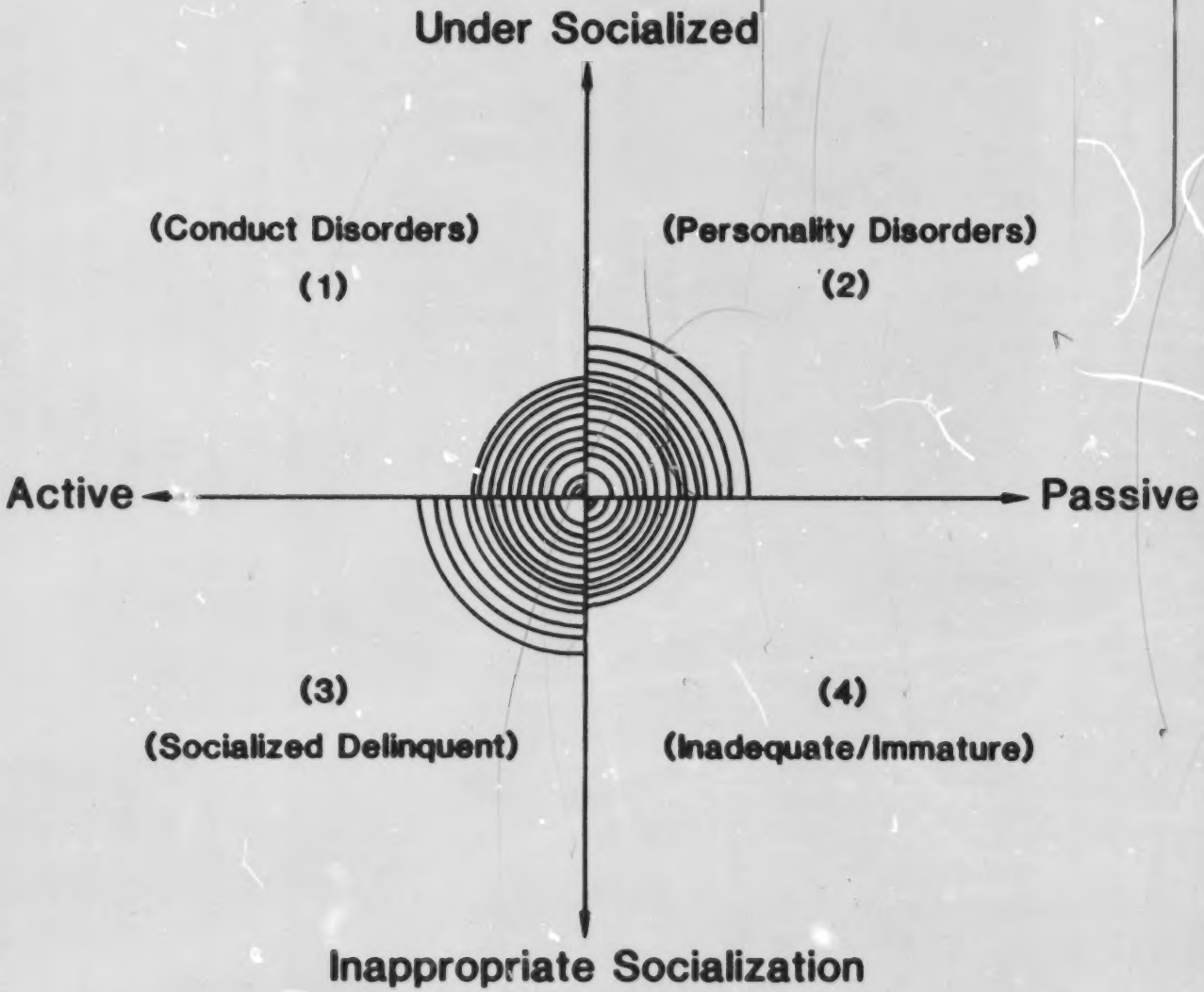

Figure 1. Continuum of Maladjustments and Comfort Zones. (Donna R. Eyde.)

Other disruptive youngsters may experience sufficient physical distress to cause acting out problems. For example, poor nutrition, uncorrected vision or hearing problems, undiagnosed hyperkinetic reactions or learning disabilities can lead to classroom misbehavior. The physical conditions of the learning environment itself, such as over-crowding, poor lighting, inadequate temperature control and inappropriate materials may bring about displays of acting out.

While children identified as chronically disruptive may be influenced by physical or social factors, the defining characteristic is their tendency to be "predisposed to arousal when their capacities to communicate in nonaggressive ways are environmentally suppressed or are not functional" (Rivers, 1977, p. 11). They appear to be more action prone than verbal in expressing emotional discomfort. Conversely, verbal reprimands appear to have low control value. Negative racial, ethnic or subcultural group membership experiences may contribute to but do not account for the chronic disruption.

Acting out is used by the child as a coping mechanism for stress reduction and maintenance of control over the frustrations inherent in the environment. While normal children from time to time display acting out behaviors, the chronically disruptive child has such a narrow and constricted zone which is overly supplied with classroom stressors that he/she has adopted acting out as a primary mode for dealing with distress and fails to respond in a competent and enhancing manner. In other words, the press of immediate environmental demands exceeds the student's adaptive resolve or ability to respond effectively. The response to felt distress may be physically destructive actions against self, others, and property and/or such verbal aggression as yelling, cursing, threats, and self-negating or depreciating statements. It is precisely these behaviors that elicit intense and ineffective teacher responses (Rohrkemper & Brophy, 1979). The student's obnoxiousness, negativism, and opposition create disorder for the learning environment and elicit ineffectual punitive responses from controlling adults, which in turn only heighten the sense of distress.

Varying incidence figures suggest that initial identification and referral of the chronically disruptive is more or less a matter of the system's level of toleration of disruptive behavior. It is evident from the research literature that no one knows exactly how many children display behaviors that are out of synchronization with environmental expectations. Wood and Zabel (1979) concluded that there appear to

be many students who exhibit disruptive behavior at one time or another, but there are significantly fewer students who disrupt over an extended time period. Kelly, Bullock, and Dykes (1977) surveyed regular class teachers in regard to the number of youngsters exhibiting behavior problems in their class. The teachers reported about 20% with problematic behaviors; of these 12% were classified as mild, 6% as moderate, and only 2% as severe. A more comprehensive survey by Rubin and Balow (1978) revealed that teachers in any single year reported 23% to 31% of their students manifested behavior problems. Males outnumber females somewhere between 3 to 1 and 7 to 1 (Reinert, 1980), and identification of disturbed behavior is not evenly distributed throughout the school population.

One surveyor reported that while "disturbed children can be found in all social classes, lower socio-cultural classes produce far more than their share" (Pate, 1963, pp. 244-245). For example, Kelly and associates (1977) reported that two black students for every white student were identified in grades kindergarten through seventh. After seventh grade through high school, the ratio of black to white was not as significant.

The variations in prevalence rates give support to the idea that the task of judging the appropriateness and inappropriateness of behavior is complex and subject to multiple influences. It is evident also that "helping" strategies are generally underutilized and some form of self-selected or system-initiated exclusion are the most common outcomes.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Dierks, D. Comparative traits. Unpublished mimeograph, 1980. (Cedar Falls, Iowa, Area 7, Program for the Chronically Disruptive Youth.)

Graubard, P. S. Children with behavioral disabilities. In L. M. Dunn (Ed.), Exceptional children in the schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1973.

Kauffman, J. M. Characteristics of children's behavior disorders. Columbus, OH: Merrill, 1977.

Kelly, T., Bullock, L., & Dykes, M. Behavior disorders: Teachers' perceptions. Exceptional Children, 1977, 43, 316-318.

Kirk, S. A., & Gallagher, J. J. Educating exceptional children. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1979.

Pate, J. E. Emotionally disturbed and socially maladapted children. In L. M. Dunn (Ed.), Exceptional children in the schools. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.

Quay, H. C. Patterns of aggression, withdrawal and immaturity. In H. C. Quay and J. S. Werry (Eds.), Psychopathological disorders of childhood. New York: Wiley, 1972.

Reinert, H. R. Children in conflict. St. Louis: C. V. Mosby Co., 1980.

Rivers, L. W. The disruptive student and the teacher. Washington, DC: National Education Association, 1977.

Rohrkemper, M. M., & Brophy, J. E. Influence of teacher role definition on strategies for coping with problem students. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, Institute for Research on Teaching, 1979.

Rubin, R., & Balow, B. Prevalence of teacher-identified behavior problems: A longitudinal study. Exceptional Children, 1978, 45, 102-111.

Smith, R. M., & Neisworth, J. T. The exceptional child: A functional approach. New York: McGraw Hill, 1975.

Stainbeck, S., & Stainback, W. Educating children with several maladaptive behaviors. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1980.

Wood, F. W., & Zabel, R. H. Making sense of reports on the incidence of behavioral disorders/emotional disturbance in school populations. Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota, 1979.

PAST AND EMERGING PERSPECTIVES ON SCHOOL DISRUPTION

Violent and vandalistic acts are seriously disrupting the schooling process. Contrary to popular view, however, external factors such as geographic location, socioeconomic status, and sociocultural group membership are not reliable predictors of norm- and value-violating behaviors (Sabatino, Heald, Rothman, & Miller, 1978). Staff turnover, authoritarian administration, and highly formalized interpersonal relationships between students and school personnel contribute to higher rates of disturbing behaviors (Goldman, 1960). Maynard (1978) observed that when teachers and administrative staff talk more than listen, insist that school needs are met first, lose the view of students as individuals, continue irrelevant curricula, establish inappropriate and often biased expectations, and rank students' concerns last, discipline problems increase geometrically.

School disruptions are apparently system-specific, and attacks on persons and property appear to be motivated by numerous interrelated variables. Financial gain, pursuit of social causes (adolescent rebellion and minority rights), malicious play, unfulfilled emotional need, academic failure and gang affiliation are motivators most often identified in the professional literature according to Sabatino et al. (1978). Poorly developed interpersonal commitments and communication skills have also been cited in studies relating predelinquent behaviors to verbal inaccessibility, where accessibility is defined as "the child's readiness to express his most important attitudes and feelings directly in verbal communications" (Jaffee & Polansky, 1962, p. 105).

Similarly, a variety of interventions to reduce norm-violating behavior have been tried with varying rates of success and carry-over. Buildings have been equipped with more technological "safety valves" and protective devices (Zeisal, 1973). Architectural aesthetics have been tried (Pablant & Baxter, 1975) and classroom designs have been manipulated (Stebbins, 1973). School and community leaders have attempted to restructure peer cultures through participatory neighborhood projects (Brookover, Erickson, & Joiner, 1967; Underwood. 1968). Curricular innovations and counseling strategies have been implemented to promote positive social and adaptive school behaviors. School counselors have tried a variety of direct teaching

approaches and consultative modes, e.g., ecological, behavioral and process-oriented (Jason, Ferone, & Anderegg, 1979), again with mixed results. Preventive school mental health programs have also been suggested or initiated (Cowen & Lorion, 1976; Ojemann, 1967) also with varying outcomes.

What emerges from the literature on disruptive students then is a hodgepodge of philosophies and often unvalidated practices for treating school disturbances. These approaches can be grouped under two major, sometimes conflicting but actually interrelated postures toward school disturbances--the counselor as teacher directly "counseling" a distressed student or the counselor as teaching consultant indirectly teaching helping skills to aid in healing a sick system. Others such as Ivey (1976) note that counseling an individual without considering the effects of the system is inadequate. Hurst (1975) concluded as reported by Ivey (1976) that counseling is a "process," not an outcome or end product in itself.

Counseling is, in fact, simply one intervention strategy to facilitate human development along constructive paths. Parsons (1894) expanded this "philosophy of mutualism" nearly a century ago. "Thus individuals and institutions continually react upon each other, the growth of each develops the other and the rhythm of their vibrations makes the music of their process" (p. 783). However, it was Kuriloff (1973) who fully developed a modern rationale for the "philosophy of mutualism" in describing the counselor as a "psychoecologist" who "enters a given ecology as an observer-participant to observe the nature of the transactions and to participate in creating ways to alter them in positive (i.e., competence-enhancing) directions" (p. 323). Disturbance is an ecological phenomenon that exists in the transactions between the child and the school environment. The task of the counselor is to alter disturbed transactions in ways that promote individual competencies among all parts of the system.

Past counseling practices with disturbing students relied heavily on various models of psychotherapy for emotional disorders. Such models assumed that (1) it is the "disturbed" child that mainly needs to be helped; (2) the disturbance originates within the child and therefore the child must actually participate in and cooperate with the therapeutic process in order to be free of symptoms; and (3) there is somehow a normal nondisturbed environment to which the "abnormal" youngster must be calibrated. Rhodes (1967, 1968) in pursuing the ecological view of transactions

within environments looked at disturbance within its contextual boundaries and proposed that a disturbed person exists within the "trans-acts" between the person and his external environment. Disturbance from an ecological view lies as much in the complementary responses and interpretations of the observer as it does in the individual differences (Rhodes, 1968). Because living things are interrelated and interdependent in complex ways, change in any one element usually affects all other parts. Predominantly intrapersonal explanations of disturbance omit exploration of the environments that contribute to or, in many cases, create the mismatch between learners and classroom demands.

When disturbances are assumed to reflect the nature of the transactions in the school community and family ecology, the counselor must approach the problem as a psychoecologist offering both systematic psychological education and specific suggestions for improving individuals' transactions. The counselor becomes Kuriloff's (1973) "observer-participant" who designs judgment-in-action plans for psychosituational classroom intervention. Such interventions for school psychologists have been described by Bardon, Bennett, Bruchez and Sanderson (1976). The authors readily acknowledge that such an approach is also potentially applicable for other mental health professionals working in the schools. While the psychosituational model of intervention has not been fully developed, the rationale for such an approach is compelling and prescriptive relative to emerging perspectives of school counseling practices.

The assumptions for psychoecological practices deserve detailing here, for they offer a way of realistically viewing school-based treatment of chronic disruptions. The problem child must first be assessed as he/she interacts with and is affected by an environment (Bersoff & Grieger, 1971). Removal of the child from the environment he/she is disturbing leads to false expectations for curing problems that are situationally based. Involvement with the youngster within the context provides an increase in the number of options for management; e.g., change the child, change the environment, change the way the child interacts with the environment, and/or change the way the environment transacts with the child. Assessment and amelioration of problem behaviors are functionally more closely paired; this increases the probability of success and eventual spread of interventions. In the process of assisting one disruptive child, other teaching/learning transactions are indirectly

modified. All children then are provided with contextually specific ways to cope with the stress and strains of classroom life in more growth-producing, competence-enhancing ways. If some children disrupt the schooling process, it is only sensible to try to help solve these problems in the settings which give rise to them.

Students today are different; they are both more ignorant and more superficially sophisticated. Teachers are different, both more committed and yet more ambivalent about discipline. Counselors are different, searching for more role clarity and suffering more role conflicts. Discipline has been publicly identified as the number one problem of schooling and discipline is becoming, unfortunately, the number one goal of too many of today's schools.

Counselors must resist making discipline their job responsibility. Instead, they must facilitate change in students and schools so that the socialization failures of a narcissistic era are not allowed to subvert the actual purposes of education. Counselors then must act as contextual specialists, teaching youngsters alternative modes of adaptation as well as teaching them about the settings to which they are adapting. Counselors must also be the teacher of teachers and the leaders of educational activities that promote the psychologically healthiest citizen within the healthiest setting possible. Psychoecological models which view disruption as both a symptom and an opportunity for adaptive skill building to enhance mental health perhaps explain what Miller (1969) meant when he advocated giving psychology away to the public to promote public welfare.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bardon, J. I., Bennett, V. G., Bruchez, P. K., & Sanderson, R. A. Psychosituational classroom intervention: Rationale and description. Journal of School Psychology, 1976, 14, 97-104.

Bersoff, D. N., & Grieger, R. M. An interview model for the psychosituational assessment of children's behavior. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1971, 41, 483-493.

Brookover, W. B., Erickson, E. L., & Joiner, L. M. Self-concept of ability and school achievement. East Lansing, MI: Michigan State University, Office of Research and Publication, 1967.

Cowen, E. L., & Lorion, R. P. Changing roles for the school mental health professional. Journal of School Psychology, 1976, 14, 131-138.

Goldman, N. School vandalism: A socio-psychological study. Education Digest, 1960, 26, 1-4.

Hurst, J. Report from western sub-committee on skills dissemination (Professional Affairs Committee, Division 17, American Psychological Association). Unpublished manuscript. Colorado State University Counseling Center, 1975.

Ivey, A. E. The counselor as teacher. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54, 431-434.

Jaffee, L. D., & Polansky, N. A. Verbal inaccessibility in young adolescents showing delinquent trends. Journal of Health and Human Behavior, 1962, 3, 105-111.

Jason, L. A., Ferone, L., & Anderegg, T. Evaluating ecological, behavioral and process consultation interventions. Journal of School Psychology, 1979, 17, 103-115.

Kuriloff, P. J. The counselor as psychoecologist. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 51, 321-327.

Maynard, W. Basic approaches to violence and vandalism. Kappan, January 1978, 359.

Miller, G. Psychology as a means of promoting human welfare. American Psychologist, 1969, 24, 1063-1075.

Ojemann, R. Incorporating psychological concepts in the school curriculum. Journal of School Psychology, 1967, 5, 195-204.

Pablant, P., & Baxter, J. C. Environmental correlates of school vandalism. American Institute of Planners Journal, 1975, 41, 270-279.

Parsons, F. The philosophy of mutualism. Arena, May 1894, pp. 783-815.

Rhodes, W. C. The disturbing child: A problem of ecological management. Exceptional Children, 1967, 33, 449-455.

Rhodes, W. C. Utilization of mental health professionals in the schools. Review of Educational Research, 1968, 38, 497-509.

Sabatino, D. A., Heald, J. E., Rothman, S. G., & Miller, T. L. Destructive norm-violating school behavior among adolescents: A review of protective and preventive efforts. Adolescence, 1978, 52, 675-686.

Stebbins, R. A. Physical context influences on behavior: The case of classroom disorderliness. Environment and Behavior, 1973, 5, 291-314.

Underwood, E. W. Ways of vandalism. Today's Education, 1968, 57, 9.

Zeisal, J. Architect says schools issue an invitation to damage. Vandalism: Special report. Nations Schools, 1973, 92, 32.

COUNSELORS AS PROTECTORS, INTERPRETERS, ADJUSTERS AND TRANSLATORS

COUNSELOR AND COMMUNITY

The roles and responsibilities of school counselors have expanded greatly in the last few years. Counselors have become both generalists in human growth and adjustment and specialists in the reclamation of human resources. Counseling functions increasingly cross disciplines, and this requires the coordination of training for varied professional and paraprofessional groups, as well as conjoint counseling services for specific problems in the areas of mental health and mental illness. Mental health needs pervade the school setting and the society that determines the contours of schooling efforts. The counselor must simultaneously articulate and advocate for the needs of students in terms of future community adjustment and translate community needs into relevant instructional activities. Outreach activities for community education, increased training of paraprofessionals, and liaison efforts among social services agencies are a natural outgrowth of helping disruptive youngsters survive. Counselors have no choice but to be involved in the outer environment that surrounds their students. This involvement is taking many forms but training is clearly becoming a preferred mode of treatment (Carkhuff, 1969).

Authier and his co-workers (1975) formulated a thorough and comprehensive description of the role and responsibility of the counselor as educator. The person being served is "taught" skills rather than "treated" for behavioral dysfunctions. As Ivey (1976) reports, "the counselor does not counsel but becomes a teacher-consultant to those who seek help or desire to improve their relationship skills or community orientation" (p. 433).

The crucial point, as Arbuckle (1976) points out, is the purpose and reason for this involvement. Are counselors more involved with helping children adjust to society than helping children modify and adjust the environment that surrounds them? The social groups that make up society replace individual experiences with collective experience and in the process displace individual goals that might run counter to societal expectations. Children with behavior problems simply are children who are not doing what the school wants them to do. Are counselors "against" society if they are "for" the students?

Jourard (1968) defined the effective counselor as a "responsible anarchist" providing a loyal opposition to the demand that all children must exhibit model behaviors that fit the system's expectations. The counselor's responsibility is to teach those skills that enable individuals to act in health-producing ways. Gordon (1967) advocates that counselors teach students to make use of those factors in the outer environment that best facilitate growth, development, and adjustment and change those factors that retard or distort wellness and well being.

The counselor must teach the youngster to cope with the stressors of the system and how to change the system to reduce unhealthy stressors. Counselors must work "with" school systems, not "for" them, to modify policies, curriculum, human behavior, rules and regulations, and other demands so that they fit the individual, rather than modifying the individual to fit the system (Arbuckle, 1976). The counselor is, in fact, moving away from dealing with diagnosis and treatment of individual pathology to training and system facilitation (Ivey, 1976).

The counselor then can function as an "environmental engineer" (Matheny, 1971) arranging and rearranging the school and community environments for the purposes of system-level mental health and individual growth and adjustment. Their primary role is educational, not remedial.

> A well-functioning counseling program is primarily devoted to the following helping behaviors: (a) helping students explore themselves in relation to the world in which they live; (b) helping them take responsibility for their lives; and (c) helping them develop interpersonal skills which maximize their effectiveness with others. The thoughtful use of environmental opportunities can greatly assist the counselor in accomplishing each of these goals. (Matheny, 1971, p. 440)

The counselor working with the chronically disruptive must be a mental health educator, educational therapist, and mental health consultant on counseling skills to the school and to the community. When the school administration develops a policy on fighting or swearing, for example, the counselor must have the opportunity for unbiased input. When a teacher collapses in the lounge mumbling about how terribly Jimmie acts, the counselor must be able to professionally share information and counseling skills to help Jimmie and his teacher without being judged as "for" the student and "against" the school. When the librarian sends Pam to see the counselor

because of her misuse of library materials, the counselor must insist on shared and mutual ownership of the problem without being viewed as afraid or impotent.

The failure of school personnel to retain ownership of disruption and establish optimal environments usually stems from lack of information, lack of necessary skills, lack of confidence in skills and/or lack of objectivity (Caplan, 1970). School personnel often draw erroneous conclusions about disruptive behavior because they lack sufficient knowledge regarding variations in the individual's developmental process. The counselor then provides an informational bridge between the system labeler of disruption and the child. Lack of communication and interpersonal skills to counsel students appropriately and lack of confidence in the skills possessed hinder the helping process. Schools are told daily that they are doing a poor job and cannot maintain discipline; unfortunately, too many personnel are beginning to believe the accusation. Their inability to make decisions about what a particular student really needs may derive from the stereotypes, prejudices, and negative attitudes that sometimes get in the way of clear thinking. The counselor-consultant can supply the necessary information, train skills, bolster confidences, and in the fullest expression of his/her capacity make sure that the decisions about disruptive students are data-based and in the student's best interest.

The apathy of certain boards and the authoritarian, reactionary or ineffectual qualities of some administrators must not dissuade the counselor from seeking optimal environments for the learning process. Outside of school, counselors can play an integral role in community-based policy making by actively involving themselves with local, state and national systems.

PARENTS AND TEACHERS

Counselors' efforts to produce individual change in children often fall short because of resistance from other socializing agents—the family, the classroom teacher, and even community members. Elementary counselors tend to be more involved with teachers and parents than secondary level counselors, by choice or training. Specific training of teachers and parents in developmental and anticipatory counseling skills usually includes the following areas according to Dinkmeyer (1973):

1. Consulting with teachers individually and in groups.
2. Consulting with parents individually and in groups.
3. Counseling theory process as it is adapted to work with preschool and elementary children.
4. Classroom guidance procedures for work in affective education with large groups.
5. Learning and human motivation theory that can be directly translated into the educational setting.
6. Behavior modification and motivation modification and procedures for training teachers in these processes.
7. Effective procedures for working with administrators and the total system. (p. 172)

Taylor and Hoedt (1974) have empirically demonstrated that parents and teachers benefit from training in counseling processes. These authors investigated the relative effectiveness of indirect group counseling with parents and/or teachers as compared to direct group intervention in bringing about behavioral change with 372 problem children within regular elementary classrooms. The research used four treatment conditions: (1) exposing mothers to an Adlerian form of group counseling; (2) exposing teachers to an Adlerian form of group counseling; (3) direct counseling with identified youngsters (an eclectic approach); and (4) a no-treatment control group. All "treatment" approaches produced significant changes. The indirect intervention utilizing significant adults in the child's environment, the parent and/or teacher, was generally more effective than direct intervention or no intervention in reducing perceived classroom behavior problems. The principles espoused by Dinkmeyer and Dreikurs (1963) and Glasser (1969), among others, that a significant adult must be able to identify the good in a child and make him aware of it as a means of facilitating positive self-acceptance and growth in academic and social competence is clearly supported by the Taylor and Hoedt (1974) research.

Parents and teachers can be taught human relations skills that will enable them to facilitate socioemotional growth and adjustment. Parents must be helped to define and understand the problem, recognize the contributions of the home environment where appropriate, and develop new skills for structuring more positive interactions with their child. Parents often feel helpless and frustrated. Sometimes their anger results in hostility directed toward the child or toward the counselor, teacher or other school personnel. Parents also blame themselves or their spouses for the child's constricted classroom "comfort zones" and they must be helped to substitute

positive transactions for old guilt. Parents may use overprotection, denial, and defensiveness to prolong the child's maladjustment so that they do not have to deal with their own personal issues. The relative balance of direct counseling for personal conflicts and indirect group counseling to teach a variety of child management skills needs to be established for each family with a chronically disruptive member.

Counseling consultation also impacts classroom teachers in regard to increased understanding of sources of disruptive behaviors and increased utilization of coping and management skills. Ritter (1978) analyzed the referral patterns of teachers over a seven-year period in conjunction with the implementation of a case consultation model. The case model described by Ritter provided for "information sharing between teacher and consultant, classroom observation and consultant access to school records, psychoeducational assessment (as necessary) to further define the problem, conferences to discuss interventions to meet the problem and follow-up to review the effectiveness of the recommendations" (p. 239). This approach was found to result in a decrease in the number of children referred by teachers over time. However, the most important benefits of consultation, namely increasing the teacher's skills, took three or four years to come to fruition. Consequently, it is probable that single, brief, short-term consultative interventions in the classroom are not sufficient to bring out significant or permanent changes in teaching skills. The consulting counselor apparently must be patient with system and staff skill building.

CLASSMATES

Peer counselors are increasingly being used as age-appropriate assistants in solving personal problems and as teachers of age-appropriate social behaviors. The child can be used by the counselor as a bridge to the adult world for detached youngsters and as an amplification of counseling change efforts. The benefits of peer counseling include an increase in available manpower (Scott & Warner, 1974) and a more positive school atmosphere. Fink and his colleagues (1978) noted that as more students are trained and model supportive interpersonal skills in their relationships, a schoolwide network of sensitive and empathic students may be created.

In order to use peer counselors, the supervisor must match the student's needs and the peer counselor's skill level. Subsequently, specific training is probably necessary for more complex problems as they emerge in the peer relationship.

The Fink et al. (1978) study suggested that careful planning precede decisions regarding the use of peer counselors and the functions assigned to them. These authors provide the following useful guidelines for use of peer counselors in the school:

1. Emphasize the informal network.
2. Select a diverse group of students so that the entire sociological strata of the school are represented.
3. Publicize the names of trained peers, thus encouraging informal contacts.
4. Train a large number of peers in basic helping skills rather than training select numbers in higher level skills. (p. 82)

In order to see the spectrum, one must have a prism. The school counselor must learn to function as a conceptualizer or prism of socioemotional development. This expertise should serve to focus the concerns of families, teachers and other school personnel (Eyde, 1980). Since the causes and effects of classroom disruption ultimately ripple throughout the school and community, the counselor must direct efforts to change the child and change the child's ecological niche by influencing community attitudes and changing the knowledge and skills of parents, teachers, and even the child's peers.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Arbuckle, D. S. The school counselor: Voice of society. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54, 426-430.

Authier, J., Gustafson, K., Guerney, B., & Kasdorf, J. The psychological practitioner as a teacher: A theoretical-historical and practical review. Counseling Psychologist, 1975, 5 (2), 31-50.

Caplan, G. The theory and practice of mental health consultation. New York: Basic Books, 1970.

Carkhuff, R. Helping and human relations. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1969.

Dinkmeyer, D. Elementary and school counseling: Prospects and potential. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 52, 171-174.

Dinkmeyer, D., & Dreikurs, R. Encouraging children to learn: The encouragement process. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963.

Eyde, D. R. Counseling the emotionally disturbed. In L. Benjamin & G. R. Walz (Eds.), Counseling exceptional people. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan, ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse, 1980.

Fink, A. M., Grandjean, P., Martin, M. G., & Bertolini, B. G. Service delivery and high school peer counseling systems. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1978, 57, 80-83.

Glasser, W. Schools without failure. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

Gordon, E. W. The socially disadvantaged child: Implications for the preparation of guidance specialists. In Preparing school counselors in educational guidance. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1967.

Ivey, A. E. An invited response: The counselor as teacher. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54, 431-433.

Jourard, S. M. Disclosing man to himself. Princeton: Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1968.

Matheny, K. Counselors as environmental engineers. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1971, 49, 439-444.

Ritter, D. R. Effects of a school consultation program upon referral patterns of teachers. Psychology in the Schools, 1978, 15, 239-242.

Scott, S. M., & Warner, P. W. Peer counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1974, 53, 228-231.

Taylor, W. F., & Hoedt, K. C. Classroom-related behavior problems: Counsel parents, teachers, or children? Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1974, 21, 3-8.

COUNSELORS AS ASSESSORS OF SCHOOL DISRUPTION: ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

In the process of schooling, every student, including the disruptive student, influences and is influenced by a variety of social institutions and by interpersonal and environmental subsystems, e.g., the classroom teacher, school staff, friends, family and neighbors. Certain behaviors may seriously disrupt one system or subsystem but cause only a minor disturbance in another. Some disruptive behaviors such as stealing or assault may cross settings and systems, e.g., from school to juvenile court or from school to home and neighborhood. Systems may have different levels of tolerance for disruptions as well as different labels for deviance or disequilibrium within the system. Since the disturbing behavior must be perceived and labeled as disturbing by someone, system members develop operational definitions or listings of what constitutes disruption. Each socializing system, then, operates within a framework of critical incidents which vary from system to system. Consequently, systems may react differently to the same behavior. For example, punching a friend at the kitchen table elicits a quite different response from hitting a stranger in the school cafeteria. Repeatedly hitting a classmate in the cafeteria or hitting an adult lunch aide may result in a critical incident that leads to identification (labeling) and to referral to the school counselor or other system-designated personnel.

Acting-out behaviors and age-inappropriate behaviors in general are viewed as critical incidents by school systems. However, individual schools have their own particular decision-trees for evaluating incidents as critical. Individual classroom teachers display different ranges of tolerance from class to class, from morning to afternoon, and often from day to day. A teacher's tolerance level is affected by a variety of factors including his/her attitude toward and knowledge of behavioral differences and variations among learners. Once a critical incident has occurred in any of the socializing systems--school, home or community--some system evaluator, often the school counselor, is asked to assess the student and/or situation to determine the seriousness of the disturbance. If the disturbance is not solely within the child but in the child's transactions with an environment, then the counselor must assess the environment simultaneously.

Bardon et al. (1976) suggest a similar approach of psychosituational classroom intervention based on Bersoff and Grieger's (1971) psychosituational assessment technique. This is "the analysis of behavior and the delineation of the immediate antecedents and consequent conditions that evoke, reinforce, and perpetuate that behavior....the individual is assessed as he interacts and is affected by the environment" (Bersoff & Grieger, 1971, p. 486). Fisher's (1973) contextual approach, like Bersoff and Grieger's and Kuriloff's (1973), proposes assessment of experiences within a given context, setting or environment.

The ecological perspective of these authors sees the counselor or other helping professional as evaluating the child's problematic behavior within its environmental context in order to more closely link assessment with successful intervention. Development of management plans within the actual learning environment, while time consuming, permits counselors to fulfill their role responsibilities as mental health consultants and as teachers, allowing counseling outcomes to be process oriented rather than product oriented.

An ecological assessment and intervention approach, however, rests heavily upon the counselor's observational and behavioral sampling skills. The systematic observations of classroom behavior required for decision making are not as fully described in the counseling literature as is the philosophy. A counselor assessing a disruptive child must first decide what kinds of observations are to be made and what sampling techniques are to be used. Are counselors to observe against a predetermined frame of reference or to create their own descriptors for categories of disruptive behaviors? Are the observations to occur during some prespecified time frame and with one or more students? Are counselors only to observe and retrospectively rate the behavior on an informal or standardized scaled instrument? Is more than one person going to observe in order to increase interrater reliability of what has been observed? For observation to be systematic, some plan of sampling as well as some observational strategy must be determined in advance.

Carroll (1974), for example, has suggested that the learner's environment and the learner's behavior must be sampled or assessed according to the following categories if the disrupted transaction is to be accurately identified.

1. Learning Environment Samples
   - Facility analysis
   - Personnel analysis

Learning demand process (input, response, reinforcement)
Task analysis
Curriculum analysis
Climate analysis
Time analysis
Group analysis
Data analysis
Resource analysis

2. Learner's Behavior Samples
Academic status analysis
Avoidance analysis
Personnel analysis
Situational analysis
Time use analysis (pp. 4-9)

Learning environment observations must take into account information concerning all important aspects of the facility's physical space, including the private, shared and social spaces used for instructional activities. Information must be gathered about the availability of personnel including class size, teacher-student ratio, presence of aides and support personnel in the class, and school environment. The demands of the learning tasks themselves, including the nature of input modes, response modes and reinforcement patterns, must be observed and examined. The learning task itself must be analyzed in terms of the main skill and the subskills involved in performance of the task. The content, materials, format and delivery characteristics of the curriculum must be identified. Classroom climate factors including the teacher's leadership style (democratic, persuasive or authoritarian), the balance of group and individual activities, interpersonal sensitivity, and interpersonal and intrapersonal socioemotional growth are important dimensions of the learner's response capability. The way a child typically approaches a learning task and performs the task, the people used or avoided, and the preferred location for learning should be observed also. The total situation of the learner including antecedents and consequences of learning responses, their use, learning rhythm and the length of time spent on specific tasks are in the inventory of the learner's characteristics.

Some of the environmental characteristics and learner's responses may be observed singularly or continuously; they may be conducted by time designation, random sampling, or duration recording (e.g., "off task total 5 minutes out of 15 minutes"). Other samples and observations may be obtained from formal tests, work

samples, cumulative folders and from interviews with the teacher, parents, classmates or other school personnel. The point is that the assessment should proceed using a systematic plan for observations and samplings. Just responding to a teacher's request "to drop by and have a look at Jim" is not a strategy sufficient to assure that assessment will be linked to successful management for Jim's chronic disruptiveness.

While an ecological assessment provides information about the various systems, contextual considerations of disruptive behavior and formulation of concepts are more appropriate activities. A functional assessment of specific classroom behaviors is also useful and sometimes less time consuming. Violators of classroom order operate on the environment with certain behaviors. The context of a target behavior such as hitting is analyzed by observing, recording and evaluating information about events occurring just prior to (antecedents) and immediately following (consequences) the behavior. A "change plan" is developed based on these observations. The change plan is based generally on some sort of count of the initial frequency of the target behavior, and on counts of the behavior after rearranging antecedents, consequences, or both, depending on the nature of the problem.

Kanfer and Saslow (1965) suggest several areas of observational assessment to consider for a functional analysis of behavior:

1. An analysis of the problem situation, including specification of the target behavior.

2. Identification of antecedents and consequences of the target behavior. Antecedents to behavior include the social and physical settings in which the behavior occurs, the behaviors of others in that setting, and the student's own reported thoughts and feelings within the setting. Consequences are events which follow the behavior.

3. Appraisal of the individual's strengths and weaknesses since a student may have no alternative but to act in a certain way because of behavioral deficits. Identification of strengths and assets aids in delineating competencies and in producing suggestions for increasing certain needed skills.

4. An analysis of social relationships, which includes consideration of social networks and identifies the persons who are disturbed by the student's behavior. One goal of some change plans is to reconstruct the social network itself to broaden tolerance for "deviant" behavior. The child's valuing of social relationships and their meaningfulness is important also in evaluating existing behavior problems.

5. A motivational analysis, which consists of information about the persons, events, activities, or objects which are reinforcing to the student. Motivational analysis should focus on intervention goals, as well as on future expectations and rewards of the individual student.

6. An evaluation of the social and physical environment and of the expectations (including cultural expectations) of others is important in shaping behaviors. Social roles for certain students tend to be negatively stereotyped. Consideration of the larger environment is needed to distinguish adaptive from non-adaptive behaviors and to help teachers decide whether to change the environment, the student's behavior, or both.

7. A developmental analysis, which involves identification of the historical origins of problem behaviors and of the circumstances surrounding their manifestation, furthers understanding as well.

Ecological and functional assessments of disruptive transactions rely on systematic observational skills, and both represent assessment strategies closely linked to intervention decision making. An ecological view is focused somewhat more generally on the interrelationship among systems, while a functional approach tends to concentrate on the child's specific behaviors as they operate within the ecological system. In either case, in order to counsel behavioral change, the counselor first must learn how to look at behavior, preferably in the actual context of disruption and relate these observations to direct intervention strategies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bardon, J. I., Bennett, V. G., Bruchez, P. K., & Sanderson, R. A. Psychosituational classroom intervention: Rationale and description. Journal of School Psychology, 1976, 14, 97-104.

Bersoff, D. N., & Grieger, R. M. An interview model for the psychosituational assessment of children's behavior. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1971, 41, 483-493.

Carroll, A. W. The classroom as an ecosystem. Focus on Exceptional Children, 1974, 6(4), 1-11.

Fischer, C. T. Contextual approach to assessment. Community Mental Health Journal, 1973, 9, 38-45.

Kanfer, F. H., & Saslow, G. Behavioral analysis: An alternative to diagnostic classification. Archives of General Psychiatry, 1965, 12, 529-538.

Kuriloff, P. J. The counselor as psychoecologist. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 51, 321-327.

COUNSELORS AS EDUCATORS

Regardless of the student's developmental level, classroom placement, or specific displays of problematic behaviors, counselors as educators can affect teaching/learning transactions along three complementary dimensions: curriculum, management, and motivation (Towns, 1981). Counselors may suggest or actually modify the curriculum content of the classroom through changes in the instructional tasks. Counselors may teach the student or train the teacher in alternative techniques for managing teacher/learner responses to instructional requests. Counselors may teach self-observation and social interaction skills, thereby altering the motivational response patterns that teachers and students use to obtain rewards from interacting with the learning environment. Finally, counselors can increase teacher/learner sensitivity to sociocultural differences. The instructional task, structure, and reward make up the triangle of educational efforts (Hewett, 1968). The counselor may select intervention strategies from any one or combination of these aspects depending on the needs of the student, the needs of the teacher, and the needs of the classroom or school.

CURRICULUM (TASK) MODIFICATIONS

Schools as socializing agents have as a goal the development of academic skills. However, there is a "hidden curriculum" that attempts to teach students those social behaviors, values and attitudes identified as important by the community (Cartledge & Milburn, 1978). Little time is spent in most classrooms on directly teaching those skills subsumed by the "hidden curriculum." If a student fails to learn such skills incidentally on his own, then the counselor often is expected to provide a remedy for the student and the learning environment. While some school systems have taken a proactive posture to teaching all students how to survive successfully in a complex world, the most common approach is a remedial one. Affective education, career education and, to a lesser extent, leisure education represent counselor-generated curriculum modifications that are effective instructional strategies with the chronically disruptive student. The following sections on affective, career and leisure education will review briefly the contours and content of these curricular strategies.

AFFECTIVE EDUCATION

There was a child went forth every day,
and the first object he looked upon
and received with wonder, pity, love
or dread, that object he became,
and that object became part of him for the
day, or a certain part of the day or for
many years, or stretching cycles of years.
Walt Whitman

Whether it is planned or not, children are educated affectively. Very often chronically disruptive children have "looked upon" a succession of "dreadful" school-related circumstances. What they become or what becomes part of them may be an unfortunate collection of disturbing behaviors. The challenge for counselors and educators is to make learning a rewarding, enriching experience that encourages the enhancement of the students' self-esteem.

Learning has been divided by Bloom, Krathwohl, and Masia (1964) into the cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains. The cognitive domain, which includes reasoning abilities, and the psychomotor domain, which encompasses movement activities, are enhanced in the public school setting. School districts publish curricula defining cognitive and psychomotor goals to be achieved during each school year. However, they miss educating an essential part of the learner, the part that cries for recognition.

Borton (1969) recognized that every school has in its educational objectives two statements, "one for real and one for show." The first, "the real one," talks about academic matters. "The other discusses the humane purpose of the school--values, feelings, personal growth, the full and happy life. It is included because everyone knows that it is important, and that it ought to be central to the life of the school. But it is only for show" (p. 56).

When children enter the classroom they are asked not to continue to "wonder, pity or love," but instead to conform, choose, recognize, reason, and rein in their impulses. They are asked to surrender their sense of individuality and to become members of a class where they are required to learn as the teacher teaches. If

children fail at this, they begin a "stretching cycle" of failures that follow them throughout their school careers.

Teachers and counselors must seek to combine the learning of facts with the enhancement of the self and the love of learning. Silberman (1970) feels that schools can be interested in the feelings of the learner while educating the cognitive part of him or her. "They can be genuinely concerned with gaiety and joy and individual growth and fulfillment without sacrificing concern for intellectual discipline and development" (p. 208).

Learning About Feelings. Certain affective education programs have goals of positive mental health and are rooted in the tradition of humanistic education. John Dewey (1916) described schools as "embryonic communities" designed to build societies that were "more lovely and harmonious" (p. 15). Education's goal was personal emotional growth that would, in turn, foster the improvement of society as a whole.

Manning (1971) offers a more modern testimony to this philosophy in a current curriculum text:

> This child is a precious thing. Try to know him well. Bring him into your classroom as a loved and esteemed member of the group. Respect him for what he is and guide him to discover what he can do best. Help him to grow in wisdom and skill. Show him that he has within him a capacity for greatness. Give him the will to touch the stars. Protect him, and cherish him, and help him to become his finest self. (p. 3)

There are several programs that see these sentiments as worthy of a separate curriculum, a "feelings class." Others reflect Manning's philosophy by encouraging certain healthy ways of relating and specific strategies for teaching.

Besell's (1973) feelings class employs the vehicle of the "magic circle" or circle discussion to encourage grade school children to become aware of their feelings, thoughts and behaviors. A theory manual offers daily discussion guides, evaluation scales and a rationale for the circle itself. Leaders are encouraged to participate in the training inservices. The lessons begin with recognition of warm or good feelings and are non-threatening in nature. The "circle" concept teaches listening and speaking skills and acceptable group behavior.

Simon (1972) states that in a society that is growing more complex, people are less clear about their values. In the activities provided by this program, students are encouraged to look at moral dilemmas frequently facing them and to systematically arrive at solutions. The leaders are encouraged to remain non-judgmental but to facilitate a respect for others' opinions. While students are introduced to the complexities of decision making in modern life, they also view themselves as more responsible, self-motivated, self-assured and independent.

Glasser (1969) encourages school personnel to recognize success, to provide more opportunities for autonomous choices on the part of the students, and to relate more humanely with the students. The feelings class in Glasser's work is a daily class meeting that is open-ended in nature. The teacher begins the discussion on topics of interest to the class and non-judgmentally elicits opinions and responses. The class meeting can also take the form of a self-management group where the students take responsibility for solving problems that face the class.

There are numerous studies that have proven the effectiveness of these programs in enhancing self-esteem. Schools that have used them have seen reductions in disciplinary referrals, vandalism and absenteeism. These documented study results are helpful in encouraging school systems to institute affective education classes. Counselors who are attempting to encourage open, positive relationships with groups of students may wish to lead or co-lead these groups with the classroom teacher. In this way the counselor may model therapeutic ways of relating for both students and teachers.

Two other affective approaches concern how teachers relate to students. Gordon (1975) explains how to listen, how to structure environments to avoid conflict, how to negotiate and how to solve problems without anyone's losing. Counselors can be especially helpful in alerting teachers to more productive methods of relating to others. Freed (1971) introduces the use of transactional analysis, where both children and adults can discover the roles they play, ways of effective communication and the importance of giving "strokes" or positive reinforcement to others. For this school of theorists, affective education is figuring out what it means to be a human being and learning how to be a better one. Methods of communicating with openness and warmth ease problems of angry acting out.

Feeling Good About Learning Through the Arts. The following examples of innovative subject matter show that the affective domain and the cognitive domain can be intertwined. When students are motivated to learn in a warm, trusting atmosphere coupled with an intriguing curriculum, love of learning ensues.

Brown (1971) describes an inner city English class that was discussing the novel The Red Badge of Courage. The novel was being read to the class so that all students could experience the book together in spite of differing academic levels. After a section of the book was read, the discussion turned from plot and character development to the class members' own feelings of fear and disillusionment. Their experience of the novel became both cognitive and affective: a recognition of narrative style and a sense of personal relevance to their lives. Brown's class went on to act out scenes in the novel to make it more fully a part of them.

When students are encouraged to express themselves positively during the school day, incidences of negative expression decrease. Jensen (1975) states that a deviant act can be interpreted as an expression of the child's desire for recognition. A creative act--producing a play, building a boat, writing a poem, even figuring out a computer program--can serve instead as the expressive outlet for a potentially destructive child. Because of the nature of the creative arts it is not surprising that innovative arts programs for troubled youths abound. Jensen explains that "the arts DO things immediately and combine responsible actions with productive work" (p. 43).

An arts curriculum, like an exclusively affective curriculum, can help students identify and express emotions, learn about themselves, enhance peer relationships and improve self-esteem. Youths may also acquire knowledge and skills that will become part of them for a "stretching cycle of years."

One program, the Creative Rapid Learning Center in Austin, Texas, offers an arts centered curriculum that also provides emphasis on reading and practical math skills. Since 1978, the Center has served more than 600 dropout and delinquent youths. In spite of past truancy histories, 75% of the students have perfect attendance records. The curriculum includes drama, dance, carpentry, computer training, pottery, and gardening. Many students have shown improvements in reading, as much as three grade levels in six months. The Center also sponsors a traveling theater troupe that presents original works based on students' experiences.

Another program, at the Juvenile Evaluation Center in Swannanoa, North Carolina, is a result of the efforts of Fox Watson, an artist and musician. What began as lessons in guitar, violin and other string instruments has developed into a diverse arts program that includes creative writing, filmmaking and shipbuilding.

G.A.M.E. (Growth through Art and Museum Experience) is a delinquency prevention program for New York City youths. The 144 students from two elementary and two junior high schools report to the G.A.M.E. center for two full days a week for twelve weeks. Two half-days are devoted to working on communication skills through poetry and writing, filmmaking, graphic arts and other activities. The artist/educators spend an additional half-day training students to become teacher aides in the arts in order to function as helpers in their own schools for the rest of the week. The other half-day is reserved for museum trips and visits to artists' studios and with professional artists. The teachers at G.A.M.E. claim that the project increases reading and academic levels, encourages a better adjustment to the regular school setting, heightens cultural awareness, and improves self-image.

Don't Break the Window (Eyde, in press) is an affective curriculum developed by teachers from the Nebraska Psychiatric Institute and the Millard Public Schools in Omaha, Nebraska. Middle school and high school students identified as behaviorally disordered or emotionally disturbed were taught a semester of art, poetry and drama. The goal of the curriculum was to improve student self-esteem, to encourage appropriate emotional expression, and to provide the opportunity for the student to view himself as an artist, poet or actor. The project, which was supported by Title IV, ESEA funds, produced three curricula for use by teachers and counselors of the emotionally disturbed.

The project staff reported improved self-concept, an increased ability to recognize emotional states, and greater knowledge and skills in the three subject areas. Students continued to view themselves as artists after leaving the hospital or special education setting. Student graphic art has received awards in local art shows; students have entered and won prizes in creative writing contests, and student-produced plays have been performed. One former student who has developed her skills as a dramatic artist is now a member of a college acting troupe. Although the project was designed for emotionally disturbed children, it can be used with chronically disruptive children at all levels of functioning.

These projects and many others reported by Pierce (1979) are produced by concerned creative people who are looking for alternatives to the angry destructive acts of the children with whom they work. Affective education and arts programs cannot solve all of the problems of chronically disruptive youths. They can, however, give young people tools to express themselves, help them see themselves as valuable, creative persons, and offer alternative ways to learn and achieve.

CAREER EDUCATION

Vocational guidance historically has been the responsibility of the school counselor. Career education has been a major counseling thrust for many kinds of students for at least a decade. Career education for disruptive students is only now emerging as a curriculum concern. Current approaches tend to favor integration of career education objectives for each student in each subject area within the overall school curriculum. Consequently, the counselor has been freed to work directly with the individual interests, skills, needs and personal goals of specific disruptive students, especially adolescents.

Preventive career education activities for the chronically disruptive are based on the assumption that current norm-violation behaviors will lead to more serious offenses and more serious failures in socialization unless the student is helped to identify a socially acceptable mode of earning a living and pursuing a career. Interventions typically stress career planning awareness, vocational training, and job skills as ways to provide for the student's opportunity for successful adjustment (Sabatino & Mauser, 1978a). Self-awareness and self-esteem are strengthened and future forecasting of employability and economic success is improved in the process of teaching about goal setting, decision making, problem solving, and use of leisure time. Sabatino and Mauser (1978a) point out "the primary emphasis in career education is on upgrading youths' competencies and establishing near, mid and long term career objectives" (p. 68).

Personal goal setting and inventories of competencies are primary considerations in career counseling for the disruptive youngster. Questions such as "what's in it for me?" are answered by exploring "what's out there?" Questions such as "How do I get it?" are answered by exploring the skills, attitudes and values necessary for successful work adjustment. Future forecasting influences current responses as

much as, if not more than past experiences. Counselors heighten self-esteem by focusing systematically on where students can go rather than on where they have been. Career education is really a curriculum of future expectations instructing the students in the ways in which the self can move in competence enhancing directions. Obviously, these activities must be appropriately sequenced and based on the developmental age/stage of the learner, but they are also based on a belief in individual capacity for change, the orderliness of growth and adjustment sequences, and the biological, psychological and sociological continuity of human development.

Sabatino and Mauser (1978b) summarize career education for the chronically disruptive by noting that "chronic disruptive norm-violating youth are a relative social concern; they are about as easy to identify early as they are to rehabilitate. Our success at both has been minimal" (p. 52). Nelson and Kauffman (1977) conclude that "the efficacy of any one of these approaches is far from formally established" (p. 109). Despite the lack of definitive answers to the programming needs of this school population, certain career education program elements appear to have more relevance than others. A program for chronically disruptive youths that includes most of these components presumably has a better chance of success than one including only a few of them. The program components that counselors should be aware of, according to Wood and Kayser (1982), are as follows:

1. Voluntary application by students and control of admission by program staff;
2. Partial integration of students in the regular programs of the district;
3. Student involvement in setting personal goals for accomplishment;
4. Skills taught related to immediate daily life needs of students;
5. Individualized academic skill instruction;
6. Counseling/problem solving sessions focused on current student problems;
7. Provision for reward and response cost contingency on student performance;
8. Planned vocational training, placement and follow-up;
9. Parental involvement;

10. Cooperation with related community services. (pp. 12-13)

A career education program that includes the above components represents the "state of the art" and a "best guess" strategy for socializing disruptive youths. The programming needs of individuals are complex and model programs may not be transplanted easily. Counselors may, nevertheless, utilize Wood and Kayser's components as curriculum principles to operationalize and individualize career education for their students.

LEISURE EDUCATION

Tomorrow's children in general will be faced with increased amounts of leisure time as the work week continues to be shortened. The underemployed and unemployed will face even larger amounts of enforced leisure than their working peers. Moreover, disruptive students have in the past been limited in their work choices. Consequently, job satisfaction has not been as high nor as meaningful. Thus, life satisfaction which may be unavailable in a limited work situation could be found in recreation and leisure activities if these skills were included in the total educational program. In order to insure that a quality of life is equally available, recreation and leisure education must be equally accessible.

Kraus (1971) has noted that the purpose of leisure education is to bring about certain desirable changes in terms of attitudes, skills and behavior. He has identified at least five vehicles for providing leisure education in the public schools. These approaches are as follows: (1) leisure education as a separate curriculum; (2) individual classes which are designed to contribute directly to leisure competencies; (3) co-curricular activities; (4) individual classes which contribute indirectly by focusing on leisure issues; and (5) recreation practicums where students practice special skills. The aim of leisure education is to bring about desired changes by adapting and/or modifying learning experiences. These would take into account the unique needs of the special learner by providing the student with the competencies necessary for optimum participation, which is as independent and self-initiated as possible, in normal recreational, leisure and cultural activities.

Although the goals of leisure education are similar for all individuals, the types of activities are quantitatively and qualitatively different depending on the unique needs of specific groups. Chronically disruptive students are functioning not merely at a lower level of leisure skills development, but also at a qualitatively different level. Such students have a number of special learning needs which may be either a source or result of their learning difficulties. Regardless of the origin of their learning problems, the quality of their leisure skills deficits suggests that leisure education should be an alternative or therapeutic curriculum. The most common instructional problems for this group center around anxiety, affect, and impulse control.

Anxiety. While the origin and manifestations of anxiety differ, its effect must be taken into account in adapting leisure education. The success of an activity depends largely on the teacher's ability to recognize the various manifestations of an anxious child and to structure the activities so as to reduce anxiety in the child and in the group situation (Cohen & LaVietes, 1966).

Strategic timing and pacing of activities are important instructional concerns that can either increase the learner's anxiety or effectively reduce it so the child is more available for learning. Disturbed children often have distorted or vague perceptions of time. Time limits and pressures often increase anxiety. Pacing and balancing of activities such as alteration between solitary and group play, physical and cognitive exercises, and sequencing of activities from the easily mastered to the more difficult all help reduce tension.

In general, more of the learners exhibit a rigidity in their behavioral responses. They appear to lack a general flexibility in their approaches to learning tasks or interpersonal relations. Whether this rigidity stems from a defense against their own internal chaos or reflects a need for control or is merely another manifestation of anxiety is not important for the educators. What is important is that the teacher be aware of rigidity and pay close attention to maintaining classroom routines. The teacher should also anticipate increased tension during transition periods when students are moving from one activity to another and plan to smooth out possible rough spots by helping students anticipate change. If major changes in routines are expected, then the teacher should rehearse possible events with the class. The leisure educator must keep a careful balance between the familiar and

new and provide small, safe, sequenced opportunities for trying out new behavioral responses.

Management of sensory input is an important consideration in the classroom. Excessive sensory stimulation may increase anxiety. Since many children have various problems with processing incoming information, care must be taken not to overload them. Some children may rely on a single sensory modality to the exclusion of all others. In these cases, there is a need to de-emphasize the preferred modality and gradually introduce other modes of information processing. Spatial arrangements in learning activities are also important. Some children are made anxious if they are not close to the teachers; others are anxious if they are too close to teachers or members of the group. The teacher must be sensitive to each child's perceived need for spacing himself in relationship to others. In general, crowding and clutter will increase classroom tension. Even instructional materials can be a source of anxiety.

Lastly, the various methods used to control behavior will influence the anxiety level of the individual child and of the group. Appropriate and consistent limit setting, early intervention in an inappropriate behavior sequence, a good balance between safe, successful activities and more risky, challenging activities, and anticipation of potential problems are a few of the most successful methods for control of behavior. Loss of control on the part of either a student or the staff will increase the child's anxiety.

Affect. In working with emotionally disturbed adolescents, one is impressed with their seemingly meager and undifferentiated repertoire of emotional responses. Moreover, there is a pervasive reluctance to risk the self in novel learning situations. The adolescent's willingness to risk will increase proportionately to his/her sense of safety and security in the learning environment. Structure and routine will reduce anxiety, while planned praise and reinforcement of certain learning responses will increase the number of new tasks the youth will attempt. Self-concept and self-esteem have become overworked terms in the field of education. However, the emotionally disturbed adolescent generally exhibits limited self-esteem. In many cases, the youth has neither the necessary skills nor the opportunities to access recreational situations which would enhance his/her sense of mastery and increase feelings of self-worth. Prescriptive leisure can promote development of

the skills necessary for success in various areas while utilizing the youth's present strengths and interests. Leisure education can be designed also to teach the youth about a variety of emotions and to encourage students to explore more differentiated emotional responses through role playing, values clarification and similar activities.

Impulse Control. Acting-out behavior probably represents the single greatest difficulty in leisure classes. Experiential histories and inappropriate reinforcement contribute to the students' general problem of impulse control. A number of behavior management strategies are available to aid control of responses. However, the content and delivery of a leisure education curriculum can serve also to channel and redirect aggressive behaviors while providing new alternative responses to anger and frustration. For example, biofeedback instruction has been used in limited ways to sensitize the individual to aspects of self-control. There is some evidence that the learning of certain aspects of biofeedback control will generalize to other areas of behavior. Relaxation exercises are also useful in helping the student gain greater mastery over the perceived stresses in his/her environment. If leisure instruction can provide the student with an expanded repertoire of alternative behaviors, appropriate reinforcement for desired behaviors, and an increased understanding of interpersonal transactions, then impulse control problems are greatly reduced.

In summary, leisure education can be said to represent a workable example of an alternative, affective education. Leisure education contributes to the mental health of all children and, in particular, meets many of the needs of the disruptive learner. The leisure educator must be aware of problems of anxiety, affect and impulse control and institute selective programming to accommodate these individual difficulties.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bessell, H. Methods in human development: Theory manual. San Diego: Human Development Training Institute, 1973.

Bloom, B., Krathwohl, D., & Masia, B. Taxonomy of educational objectives: Handbook II: Affective domain. New York: David McKay, 1964.

Borton, T. Reach, touch, teach. Saturday Review, January 18, 1969, pp. 56-70.

Brown, G. Human teaching for human learning: An introduction to confluent education. New York: Viking Press, 1971.

Cartledge, G., & Milburn, J. The case for teaching social skills in the classroom. A review. Review of Educational Research, 1978, 48, 133-156.

Cohen, R. S., & LaVietes, R. Clinical principles of curriculum selection. In J. Hillman (Ed.), Educational therapy. Seattle, WA: Special Child Publication of the Seattle Sequin School, Inc., 1966.

Dewey, J. The school and society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1916.

Eyde, D. Don't break the window. Omaha, NB: University of Nebraska Medical Center, Educational Therapy, in press.

Freed, A. TA for kids. Sacramento, CA: Jalmar Press, 1971.

Glasser, W. Schools without failure. New York: Harper & Row, 1969.

Gordon, T. Teacher effectiveness training. New York: David McKay, 1975.

Hewett, F. M. The emotionally disturbed child in the classroom. New York: Allyn & Bacon, 1968.

Jensen, E. Juvenile delinquency--deprived creativity. Community Education Journal, 1975, 5(5), 41-45.

Kraus, R. Recreation and leisure in modern society. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1971.

Manning, D. Toward a humanistic curriculum. New York: Harper & Row, 1971.

Nelson, C. M., & Kauffman, J. M. Educational programming for secondary school age delinquent and maladjusted pupils. Behavioral Disorders, 1977, 2, 102-113.

Pierce, C. Troubled youth and the arts: A resource guide. Washington, DC: READ, Inc., 1979.

Sabatino, D. A., Heald, J. E., Rothman, S. G., & Miller, T. L. Destructive norm-violating school behavior among adolescents: A review of protective and preventive efforts. Adolescence, 1978, 52, 675-686.

Sabatino, D. A., & Mauser, A. J. Intervention strategies for specialized secondary education. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1978. (a)

Sabatino, D. A., & Mauser, A. J. Specialized education in today's secondary schools. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1978. (b)

Silberman, C. Crisis in the classroom. New York: Random House, 1970.

Simon, S. Values clarification: A handbook of practical strategies for teachers and students. New York: Viking Press, 1972.

Towns, P. Educating disturbed adolescents: Theory and practice. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1981.

Wood, F. H., & Kayser, T. F. Career education for the chronically disruptive student. Unpublished manuscript, University of Minnesota, 1982.

COUNSELORS AS EDUCATORS: MANAGEMENT (RESPONSE) ALTERNATIVES

A well intended curriculum without appropriate management of the learner's efforts to learn never reaches the chronically disruptive child. Consequently, the management of the teaching/learning milieu is as important as what is being taught. Behavior management occurs whenever teachers or counselors manipulate or modify behaviors in relation to specific learning events so that students share equal access to learning opportunities. It is most effective to decide in advance what learning skills or behaviors disruptive students need to acquire and exhibit in order to achieve a better match of demands and responses in the classroom arena. Behavior management strategies then can be used to teach those necessary learning behaviors.

Too many educators confuse classroom management or discipline with punishment. Discipline teaches by helping a student progress toward increased self-management, value development, and organization of learning behaviors. Punishment does not teach remedial, alternative, or developmentally more mature learning behaviors because it fails to specify what the student should be doing to learn. In fact, punishment elicits such strong emotional currents in teacher and student that new learning is nearly impossible.

Some educators confuse discipline and the management of the learning process with gadgets, gimmicks and tricks of the trade. Gadgets and tricks cannot replace thinking, observing, planning, loving, understanding and deciding about teaching outcomes (Redl, 1966). Gimmicks will work for some teachers and for some students in some situations. Systematic use of positive management strategies will work for a majority of teachers a majority of the time.

This section describes positive management approaches that are useful for structuring and preserving classroom order. Enhancement of the match between student and classroom demands, thorough observing of the goodness-of-fit between student and environment and the student's resulting learning niche, and planning for increased goodness-of-fit are at the heart of managing disruptive students. Effective use of prevention strategies diminishes the opportunities for inappropriate behavior, and effective use of problem solving techniques can correct or adjust

classroom order and balance. Problem solving management involves decisions that result in the development of behavioral change plans. Prevention strategies are more anticipatory and future-oriented and seek to establish learning environments that have a low probability for generating misbehaviors. Instructional environments and activities are designed to set up successful transactions. Problem solving, on the other hand, involves problem description, prescriptions for change, and evaluation.

Much classroom conflict can be avoided and orderliness enhanced if the three "R's" of prevention are observed--routine, rules and rewards (Eyde, 1982). Mismatches in instructional routines, inconsistent enforcement of class rules, or inappropriate or nonexistent rewards are sources of conflicts that can be anticipated and avoided. The curriculum should be selected, sequenced, paced and spaced to provide periodic breaks between learner and learning demands so as to allow time for respite, repair and reconstruction of deficient relations within and beyond the classroom (Fink, 1977). Routines that provide rhythm, structure and predictability are essential for students who lack the skills to organize learning responses. Classroom routines demarcate "stability zones" for distressed and disorganized learners. Routines provide orderliness and structure movement from one learning activity to another. Rules establish the boundaries of acceptable behavior within those activities and identify the expectations of others in the environment.

When rules are clear and reasonably specific, each one establishes a contingency between a behavior and its consequence. Positive management includes keeping rules to a minimum while enforcing each consistently and fairly. Rules should include descriptions of the expected appropriate behavior and of the consequences for violations in ways students can understand. Students themselves and counselors can be involved in developing classroom rules but the leadership responsibility belongs to the teacher. Rules should be reviewed periodically. If a student violates a rule, he/she should be asked to restate the rule, describe the violation in terms of misbehavior, and accept the pre-established consequences of the violation. Rules set limits. Setting limits for particular students is similar but more individualized and should be by prescriptive statements that clarify limits of acceptable behavior and the consequences for appropriate and inappropriate acts.

Many classroom strategists are confused and uncertain about rewards. Rewards are viewed as bribes for behaviors which should be exhibited as a matter of

course. The following guidelines may be helpful in deciding how, when and what should be rewarded.

1. Reward behaviors you wish to be repeated;
2. Reward improvement;
3. Reward as soon as possible after the desired behavior;
4. Reward in ways that do not interfere with or disrupt learning;
5. Reward a response if it is a part of a desired new behavior;
6. Reward behavior that is free of ambiguity (if you are unsure, don't reward);
7. When behavior is rewarded it should be accompanied by a specific description of the behavior that earned the reward; and
8. Do not reward an undesirable behavior.

In summary, preventive classroom management consists of carefully and supportively organizing the learning environment so that students may succeed. Part of that organization includes clear and consistent use of routines, rules and rewards. The other part of management includes systematic observation and problem solving of ongoing classroom disruption.

Available techniques for managing disruptive behavior range along a continuum of internal versus external control or teacher centered versus student centered (Wolfgang & Gluckman, 1980). If the student is disruptive but in control of his behavior, intense external control is not the appropriate way to intervene. At the first level, support techniques such as active listening and value clarification, non-directive statements, reflective statements and discussion of behavior usually suffice. On the next level, the teacher may supply more control by confronting the misbehavior and directly achieving some type of agreement concerning behavioral change. The change is often prescribed in some form of contract or reward contingency. The third, and most intense level of external control, directly influences the desired direction of behavioral change. Behavioral modification techniques are commonly used. Physical intervention and forms of isolation also are sometimes used. The student's developmental level and current capacity for self-control are the criteria of selection, not the teacher's degree of comfort with the various techniques. The following discussion exemplifies the level of control described by Wolfgang & Gluckman (1980); techniques of behavioral analysis and modification reflect the third level of control, contingency contracting reflects the second level, and situational interviewing reflects the first level. Examples of each of these

techniques are included because each represents viable options for positive management of classroom disruption given the needs of the student.

BEHAVIORAL ANALYSIS MODIFICATION

Behaviors operate on environments and are strengthened, maintained or extinguished by the consequences that follow them (Ullman & Krasner, 1965). Behavioral deficits are modifiable and non-adaptive behaviors are manageable because of the ongoing nature of environmental transactions. The key to behavioral analysis lies in identifying and changing transactions by changing the consequences of the operant behavior. Intervention is a matter of rearranging environmental events through a change plan. Steps in developing a change plan include the following:

1. Selection of a target behavior;
2. Observation of and recording data about the target behavior;
3. Development of a modification strategy;
4. Implementation of the strategy;
5. Evaluation of the change outcomes; and
6. Communication of results to the student and appropriate others.

Behaviors are usually problematic because they occur too frequently or too infrequently or are inappropriate for the current environmental context. Objectives of intervention often involve strengthening or increasing the frequency of appropriate behaviors, weakening or eliminating inappropriate or unacceptable responses, or teaching and shaping new alternative behaviors where needed.

After selecting target behaviors, teachers using a behavioral approach typically analyze the context within which the behavior occurs. They observe and record information about the events which occur just prior to (antecedents) and immediately following (consequences) the behavior. Key elements of modification strategy are the antecedents, the behavior itself and the consequences. Once the teacher has observed and recorded information about these three, he/she develops a change strategy. Behavior change strategies are based generally on a baseline count of the initial frequency of the target behavior, and involve rearranging either antecedents or consequences or both, depending on the nature of the problem behavior.

When the goal is to increase the frequency of a desired behavior, positive reinforcement tokens or "grandma's law" (you can have dessert after you eat your vegetables) which pair low frequency behaviors with high probability behaviors can be used. Reduction in disruptive behaviors can be achieved through reward procedures such as extraction (withdrawal of reinforcement), time out from reinforcement, or reinforcement of alternative behaviors. New behaviors can be taught through procedures such as modeling, demonstration, prompting, cueing and shaping (rewarding small steps that approximate desired behaviors).

Contingency management is characterized by essentially the same procedures as other forms of behavior management—appropriate behavior is reinforced or rewarded. Reinforcement is contingent upon performance of specified behaviors. Appropriate behaviors and resulting positive consequences are clearly described, usually in the form of written contracts. A contract is an agreement between teacher and student stating that if "this" happens, then "this" will follow. Contracts formalize commitments by including: (1) who is involved, (2) what is to be done, (3) the time frame for performing agreed upon tasks, (4) consequences, particularly the positive reinforcers (rewards) for completing specified tasks, and (5) signatures of all involved parties.

Homme (1970) has done an excellent job of delineating the steps, format and typical content of contingency contracts, as well as anticipating potential trouble spots. Langstaff and Volkmor (1974) also outline the basics of contingency contracting in a well designed self-instructional package which emphasizes that the contract must be specific, fair to all parties, provide for reinforcement of behaviors approximating desired outcomes, and reward behaviors only after they occur.

Contingency contracting is a powerful management strategy which incorporates student input because it requires that the teacher and student, jointly, decide in advance desired outcomes and their consequences. As in other approaches, contracting must be responsive to the developmental skill level of the student(s). A seriously disturbed child, for example, may have difficulty foreseeing and predicting contingencies. Consequently, contracts should be used judiciously and adapted as needed.

COGNITIVE RESTRUCTURING AND SELF-TALK TECHNIQUES

Two self-change techniques utilizing counseling strategies to improve the goodness-of-fit of disruptive youngsters are cognitive restructuring (Schmidt, 1976) and self-talk to enhance self-control of anxiety (Meichenbaum, 1972). Cognitive restructuring is any therapeutic technique that endeavors to change self-thoughts in order to alter responses so that transactions have more positive outcomes (Schmidt, 1976). Socioemotional reactions are no longer elicited solely by the external stimuli but are systematically mediated by the youngster's perception of the stimuli. This system makes use of Ellis' (1962) rational-emotive therapy and the cognitive behavioralist approach. In the A-B-C paradigm of rational-emotive theory, an activating situation (A) triggers a belief (B) which takes the form of negative self-talk that results in a consequence (C) of negative feelings. The youngster teaches himself to say distressing things to himself by constant pairing of the self-defeating thoughts with resulting emotions. Restructuring the situation through the substitution of positive thoughts in relation to proactive directed behaviors reduces the felt distress. Covert self-management techniques have shown positive results with slowing down impulsive children (Meichenbaum & Goodman, 1971) and increasing problem solving skills (Meichenbaum & Cameron, 1974).

Stress and anxiety can be influenced through self-talk as indicated by a series of studies undertaken by Meichenbaum and Cameron (1974). In the training procedure, the client is first educated about the nature of fearful and stressful reaction (flight and fight responses) before rehearsing alternative coping behaviors, e.g., thought substitution and deep breathing for muscle relaxation. Finally the client is given opportunities to practice new coping skills in stressful situations.

A number of strategies have been advanced for teaching self-control. Fagen, Long and Stevens (1975) have developd a curriculum to teach the skills believed to be related to self-control. The MARC project (Francescani, 1982) developed a procedure called START that utilizes self-talk to enhance control over feelings of fear and frustration and to teach delay of gratification and inhibition of destructive impulses. The START strategies identify five steps in self-control:

Stop: Stop everything when you identify strong feelings.

Tell Yourself: Calm down.

Ask: What's going on and what's going to happen? Is this what I want to happen?
Relax.
Tell Yourself: Solve the problem.

Self-control is the ability to manage thinking and behavior especially under stress. After the student has identified some strong feeling that might lead to a loss of control, the student's next step is the self-instruction to STOP. Eventually, this simple command will delay and inhibit automatic reflex actions; e.g., "I can feel myself getting uptight and angry. I better get control of myself. The first thing to do is say STOP. The second step is to tell myself to calm down so I can think about the situation. Ask: what is going on here? what will I do and what will happen to me as a result? e.g., John threw a pencil at me. I felt myself getting angry. I said STOP. I told myself to calm down. Then I asked what's going on. I am angry because John threw a pencil at me. What is going to happen if I lose my temper and hit John? I will get sent to the principal."

Remind yourself to relax since stress interferes with thinking about alternative reactions; e.g., "relax, take a deep breath, move around a little to relax your muscles, another deep breath, more, that's better." The final step in getting control is to tell yourself: "solve the problem; what choices do I have and which best solves this problem?"

Self-instruction and cognitive restructuring shift the focus of control and role model for change to the disruptive student himself without abandoning teacher/counselor responsibility to teach skills which provide practice and nourish healthy adjustment.

PHYSICAL MANAGEMENT AND PROSTHETIC ENVIRONMENTS

In managing aggressive, violent or potentially violent students, teachers and counselors may need a working knowledge of factors that cause aggressive behaviors, ways to prevent mismanagement, and ways to positively manage behavior including positive physical management to avoid physical injury.

The physically and verbally aggressive behaviors displayed by students are often aroused by anger, anxiety and isolation, or any combination of these feelings.

Anger can occur when a student feels abused, feels a loss of competence or independence, or has unfulfilled needs. A student also can feel abused physically or psychologically when aggressive behaviors are directed at him. Loss of privacy and personal freedom or a loss of a significant object or person are often sources of angry feelings.

Anger occurs when a student's real or perceived needs are not met. These include physiological needs for food, clothing, and shelter; security needs for physical and psychological safety; social needs for acceptance and approval from significant adults and important peers; status needs for self-worth and esteem; and self-fulfillment needs for creativity and self-realization.

Fear or anxiety is another major cause of noncompliant acting-out behavior. Students may be fearful of others' aggressive behavior or of losing their own self-control. A fearful person may lose internal control and become aggressive to lessen discomfort or attempt to physically escape the situation. Loneliness and sensory or social isolation also can lead to aggressive behavior. In this case, aggression elicits some personal attention and contact even though negative in form.

While it is not possible to prevent all aggressive behaviors, their incidence can be reduced by eliminating the causative agents as much as possible. Therefore, reduction of aggression results when there is a redirection of anger, fear and loneliness.

Communication is essential to a prosthetic environment. It reduces loneliness and helps the student ventilate feelings which, if kept bottled up, might come out in aggressive form. Negative feelings are often discharged in the very process of ventilating them. Ventilation can be encouraged by the following types of sentences: "John, is there something bothering you?"; "Mary, you seem upset"; "You are angry"; or "It must be very upsetting not to have any lunch money."

There are several options for handling aggressive behavior. Some are appropriate with some students some of the time. Exchanging the right information through the use of physical proximity and signals can be extremely important. Posture, stride, voice tone and tempo and other physical actions carry messages. Some disorganized learners misunderstand non-verbal information and react inappropriately.

Most people forget that waiting and listening can be appropriate behaviors. It is important at times to wait to find out what is bothering the student or how best to intervene. Often doing nothing will stop a minor incident from escalating into a major physical assault.

If a student grabs your arm, you must immediately assess the situation. If you know the student well, you may determine that he will do you no harm and will let go. The most important concern is not to escalate the conflict. A major obstacle for most people is that even with a student who is relatively non-threatening, they feel that the student should let go fairly soon. But "soon" may be different from the student's point of view. The point to remember is that it is not always best to act immediately.

If you do decide to act immediately, it may not be necessary to pull away, as this may further escalate the conflict. Many people forget that they can assert their own rights, without violating those of others, by merely asking him to let go. It is useful to let the student know you empathize with him. You might say, "John, you seem upset. I would like to talk to you about it." Always try to move an aggressive student to another area. This often has the psychological effect, in itself, of calming the person down. The change in perception in moving from a standing to a sitting position also has a calming effect.

Bargaining, deception and retaliation are physical techniques that do not work. Bargaining usually is not appropriate; as your students already have their legitimate privileges, there is no way to bargain without breaking rules. Doing so would have a negative long-term effect on the prosthetic environment. However, it is quite appropriate to remind students that they can control their behaviors and that if they do they will get the privileges already available from your program. Withdrawing is an option, however, which should be used in conflicts where you cannot talk the student down immediately, and there is physical danger. You need to get assistance. Do not try to be a hero. Get help.

Deception, although one of the most useful tactics for a street confrontation, is not an appropriate option for use by professionals. When a student senses the deception, he will become more angered. This could escalate the conflict immediately, or the student might retaliate later. Diversion, a related method, is sometimes very appropriate. Examples include diverting attention to something of interest such as a game, television show, or conversation.

The final option is fighting back. Never fight verbally with a student. Doing so escalates the confrontation and may lead to an assault. Physical fighting is not appropriate, unless it is non-violent as self-defense or a necessary control when nothing else will work. Physical management must be non-violent to protect the student's rights and to lessen the chance of escalation. Painful techniques tend to increase anger and lead to injury.

Space and time are the critical concepts in providing classroom prosthetics to disruptive students and avoiding physical management. Space as it is used here refers to the psychological distance that a teacher/counselor maintains from the student. Time use or psychological timing of the demands can be therapeutic or can cause conflicts. Physical distance is an aspect of space but "crowding" in classrooms in most cases is psychological.

Students with constricted comfort zones are distressed when no alternatives are available or are available at the wrong time. Crowding occurs when a power struggle creates a no-win situation for the student. The threat "you get started on your work right now or you will not go on break" is based on authoritarian control of space and time (Towns, 1981). The self enhances feelings of competence by increasingly controlling space and time, i.e., the coordinates of acts or responses. Counseling strategies for the disruptive must serve to create time/space prosthetics in order to increase the learner's organization level and the learner's control over his own learning acts.

Initially, these organizing principles must be supplied externally and in an extreme form with physical management and behavioral modification. The therapeutic way to expand the learner's comfort zone is to encourage internalization of organizing acts through contracts, situational interviews, cognitive restructuring and self-instructional strategies.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Eyde, D. R. Positive approaches to behavior management. In Monograph series in behavior disorders. Des Moines, IA: Drake University, 1982.

Ellis, A. Reason and emotion in psychotherapy. New York: Lyle Stuart, 1962.

Fagen, S., Long, N., & Stevens, D. Teaching children self-control. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Co., 1975.

Fink, A. H. Implications for teacher preparation. In A. J. Pappanikow and J. L. Paul (Eds.), Mainstreaming emotionally disturbed children. New York: Syracuse University Press, 1977.

Francescani, C. MARC: An affective curriculum for emotionally disturbed adolescents. Teaching Exceptional Children, 1982, 14, 217-222.

Homme, L. How to use contingency contracting in the classroom. Champaign, IL: Research Press, 1970.

Langstaff, A., & Volkmor, C. Structuring the classroom for success. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Co., 1974.

Meichenbaum, D. Cognitive modification of test anxious college students. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1972, 59, 370-380.

Meichenbaum, D., & Cameron, R. The clinical potential of modifying what clients say to themselves. In M. J. Mahoney & C. E. Thoreson (Eds.), Self-control: Power to the person. Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1974.

Meichenbaum, D., & Goodman, J. Training impulsive children to talk to themselves. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 1971, 77, 115-126.

Redl, F. When we deal with children. New York: The Free Press, 1966.

Redl, F. The concept of the life space interview. In N. Long, W. Morse, & R. Newman (Eds.), Conflict in the classroom. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1971.

Schmidt, J. A. Help yourself: A guide to self-change. Champaign, IL: Research Press, 1976.

Towns, P. Educating disturbed adolescents. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1981.

Ullman, L., & Krasner, L. (Eds.). Case studies in behavior. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc., 1965.

Wolfgang, C. H., & Gluckman, C. D. Solving discipline problems: Strategies for classroom teachers. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1980.

COUNSELORS AS EDUCATORS: MOTIVATIONAL (REWARD) ALTERNATIVES

Curriculum changes and management systems are meaningful only if they are associated with motivational components. The purpose of motivational strategies for the chronically disruptive is "to establish consistent positive reinforcement contingent upon desired behavior and to make the process of education relevant, rewarding and at times just 'fun' for the student" (Towns, 1981, p. 64). Because of faulty contingencies or faulty perceptions of contingencies, disruptive learners have not learned to value customary social reinforcers. Other learners will act in socially appropriate ways because they have associated praise and attention with desirable social transactions. The chronically disruptive must acquire the skills surrounding social problem solving and apply these understandings to social interchanges in a normative and age-appropriate manner. Videotherapy and bibliotherapy are two remedial strategies that appear to be motivators for disruptive students and to provide remedial information about the self in a non-threatening fashion. The youngster's social awareness and skills are altered through media presentation of limited role playing, natural and simulated interpersonal activities, and theme stories.

Videoteaching (Eyde, 1982) is a series of techniques for changing the way students act by videotaping their behaviors and allowing them to watch and, in some cases, manipulate the taped sequence. The videotapes show the student the self to be changed, and the teacher/counselor, together with the student in some cases, describes ways to alter behavior.

VIDEOTHERAPY

Videotherapy, introduced by Greelis and Haarman (1980), is a persuasive teacher. The child is the ultimate learning resource acting as his/her own role model, monitoring the impact of behavior on others and hopefully increasing self-control of behavior. Videoteaching can be used for emotional re-education through remedial information about the self and for increased social awareness of problem

behaviors. This type of teaching is based on two fundamental principles in the psychology of learning: (1) there are certain things best taught through imitation learning rather than trial and error methods; (2) there are certain concepts best taught through modeling of the behavior. Many of the social contacts that disruptive students have difficulty with, e.g., taking the role of others, body language, and messages of aggression or retreat, are best taught with models. Videoteaching aids in focusing and objectifying disturbing behavior and in helping students identify, understand and change the ways they act.

In a videoteaching approach, the youngster functions as his/her own role model observing and evaluating the outcomes of behavioral transactions. The medium is the message of behavior conveying information about what behavior means in a social context. Role models are readily available in a natural and spontaneous fashion and the outcomes of behavior are readily perceived. Remedial information is easily applied as behavior is neutralized and reviewed. The student's attention is focused directly without a high emotional charge as images move across the screen. Videoteaching, then, is an instructional approach or teaching strategy to facilitate the growth of personal competence.

Most teachers and parents would agree that special youngsters lack <u>personal</u> competence in one or more areas, yet typical special instruction tends to be largely a matter of <u>academic</u> competence. The important skills of getting along in the world are too often neglected. Personal competence may need to be taught directly, especially to distressed students.

Behaviorally impaired students usually have difficulties in the areas of self-identity, relationships, and control over self and its impact on the environment. Consequently, the understanding and practice of "learnings" in personal competence should lead to increases in self-identity and improvements in relating and control.

Many of these youngsters have a poor self-concept, which means really that they have a poorly developed sense of selfhood. The self is an open-ended social product--we tend to see ourselves as others see us, but we can alter these beliefs about the self according to current social experiences. Videoteaching represents the dynamics of the self acting in and on a social environment. A clear sense of self may be difficult to visualize if past social relations have been confused or chaotic. Systematic video representation, then, gives youngsters remedial social information about the self that theoretically should enhance identity.

The self arises from social interactions, "I interact, therefore I am." Relationships provide the affective bridges to connect the youngster with the social milieu. A sense of connectedness is prescribed by social roles as well as the growth goals of the self. Children and adolescents must gain clear understandings of who they are and how they relate to strangers, acquaintances, friends, parents, teachers and the larger community. Lastly, each self must obtain a sense of impact control, competence and, eventually, mastery in relation to environmental events.

The teacher/counselor must systematically develop understanding, provide practice, and nurture the abilities that make up personal competence if education is to be, in fact, prescriptively remedial. The teacher must facilitate the impaired student's understanding of how the body communicates to others since 65% of the meanings of everyday social messages are nonverbal. Communication, then, consists of both visual and vocal messages. Appearance, including clothing, physical size and general demeanor, influences the meaning of a message. Facial expression, movements and gestures, the positioning of the body in space, overall movement patterns including the amount of movement, and environmental factors such as location, all contribute to meaning. Paralinguistic items such as voice quality, loudness, expressiveness, appropriateness of affect and articulation are also important message carriers.

It is possible and perhaps even preferable to provide the youngster with practice in social linguistics. Most of the important transactions in our daily lives involve ongoing social contracts that are negotiated and renegotiated through dynamic communication transactions. Distressed students lack personal competence because they have failed to acquire understanding of the subtleties involved in social contracting, or because they fail to value the consequences of successful interactions.

There are a number of ways videoteaching provides practice in personal competency skills. Instant replay of behavior is perhaps one of the most common approaches. Stop action shows a behavior sequence that is getting the self in trouble with a teacher or classmates, such as crowding another student's work space or failing to establish eye contact with the teacher as he or she talks. Simultaneous self-observation is used to increase awareness of the self, how it acts on the environment, how a person looks, for example, when "fooling around" in a

nondirected fashion. Edited positive reinforcement is a little more difficult. It consists of taping a youngster's behavior, editing out the undesired acts, and leaving only positive and prosocial behavior. The tape can also be made of a peer who is clearly receiving rewards for appropriate behavior.

The teacher/counselor can discuss behavior with youngsters, identify some desired changes, and retape to build a repertoire of prosocial behaviors—an especially useful technique for youngsters who have difficulties taking responsibility for personal behavior. Role simulation is used as youngsters make their own tapes, dramatizing appropriate behaviors, particularly group interactions. Role playing and behavioral rehearsal provide a student with opportunities to practice the new skills.

Behavioral change must be systematically nurtured in a student. The teacher/counselor must gain the student's attention, develop a relationship, establish a need to change a nonproductive behavior, enable the student to gain satisfaction with the outcomes of changed behaviors, provide visualizations of outcomes, and support behavioral change.

BIBLIOTHERAPY

Bibliotherapy is a series of strategies for guiding reading that helps individuals gain understandings of the self and environment, learn from others, or find solutions to problems. It consists of three processes between readers and literature: identification, catharsis and insight. Identification begins with an affiliation between a reader and a character (or situation) in a story. This identification may expand one's view of self or reduce one's sense of being different from others. Catharsis takes place when readers share and vicariously experience motivations and conflicts presented in literature. Readers often realize their identification and thus gain insight into motives of their own behaviors. Insight occurs when readers see themselves in the behaviors described in the reading material (Schrank & Engels, 1981).

Effectiveness of Bibliotherapy. Schrank and Engels (1981) reviewed bibliotherapy research in an attempt to discover its usefulness for counselors. They found that although bibliotherapy is effective across all age levels, it is more effective for addressing some needs or problems than others.

Bibliotherapy is not an effective tool for facilitating academic achievement or for enhancement of self-concepts in the chronically disruptive student. On the other hand, it is overwhelmingly effective in bringing about attitude changes, such as majority group feelings toward minorities and children's attitudes toward slow learners. It appears also to be effective in promoting assertiveness, self-development and therapeutic progress.

Schrank and Engels acknowledge that counselors should be aware that positive recommendations of the value of bibliotherapy exceed available documentation of its usefulness. "Bibliotherapy is an emerging discipline. Little has been substantiated about how, why or when it works" (p. 143). Counselors are encouraged to try this approach and conduct their own research into its effectiveness with specific disabilities.

Bibliotherapy Techniques. Certain requisites are necessary for the bibliotherapy process to work effectively. There must be at least two persons, the counselor and the client. Whoever wishes to read may do so from a book pre-selected by the counselor. Reading time averages about thirty minutes; another half hour is spent in discussion and writing. Reading should occur every day until the book is finished. The counselor must have a knowledge of the written materials being used, the developmental level of the student (if used in a group situation) or the psychological, physical and emotional status of the student (if used individually). The counseling relationship must be firmly established so that the reading becomes the focus of communication (Tsimpoukis, 1968).

Once this relationship is established and the counselor knows the particular problems of the student, a book must be selected which will capture his/her interest while focusing on specific problems to enhance the process of identification. The Bookfinders (American Guidance Service, Circle Pines, MN 55014) is an invaluable aid in choosing books for bibliotherapy. It describes over 1,000 children's books according to more than 450 topics of concern to children and young adolescents. It is essential that the counselor pre-read the entire book and ask these questions:

1. Is the author dealing with significant human problems of relevance to the intended audience?

2. Is there sufficient character development with enough complexity so the presentation is believable and engaging? Is there enough complex interrelationship with other motivated, true-to-life characters?

3. Can the author transport the reader to another time and place, broadening the horizon, stimulating the imagination, deepening and enriching understanding of his/her world and of fellow men?

4. Is the situation complex enough so that at least some of the following merit discussion?

   Are there enough conditions given so parts of problems or challenges can be discriminated from main problems or types of problems?
   Are enough facts and conditions given so children could formulate creative hypotheses that might be of help to the character? Is there definition of character arising from the surrounding environment?
   Is the situation of enough significance so that underlying principles of human relationships or life might be abstracted; i.e., is the material challenging enough for the most advanced learner and yet still appealing for even the least mature learner?

5. Does the writer know his/her craft to the extent that the writing is a model? For example, does the writing show: logical and believable plot development, vivid effects with savored language, artistic use of description, figurative language, sound patterns, dialogue, wit or humor, emotional tone, and the harmonious unity or coherence of all of these elements?

6. Does the book gain something by being read aloud and shared?

7. Can an unfinished episode be lifted from the book so that the listeners can provide alternative ways of proceeding or continuing the development of the problem situation in the story? In other words, by pausing in the story, are there open-ended opportunities for active interpretation and creative decision making by pupils?

8. Can I as counselor get personally enthusiastic about this book?

Upon completion of the daily reading, the counselor should be prepared to ask those questions which enable students to experience vicariously the conflicts presented that day and thus stimulate the process of catharsis. To obtain information on facts and conditions, the counselor might ask:

What happened to the character?
Who else was there?
How do you think he/she feels?

For clarification:
What would you call it?
What do you mean?

For cause and effect:
But why?
Why did he do that?

For multiple causes:
What else might have contributed to or caused this to happen?

For empathy and transfer:
Would you do it?
Has anything like this happened to anyone you know or to you?
What if you put yourself in Mama's place?

For alternatives:
What could be done to change this situation?
How would you have handled it?
What difference would that make?

For principles, values, attitudes:
What do you think the story is trying to show?
How would you summarize?
How could you use this idea some place else?

Daily written reaction reports are designed to reinforce the reader's identification with characters and situations and thus have them gain insight into motives for their own behavior. This last step in the bibliotherapy process is critically important to its effectiveness with chronically disruptive children and youths who are often able to find excuses but not motives for their actions. The counselor may wish to give students an instruction sheet to provide necessary structure in writing their reports; for example:

1. You will be listening to part of a book every day in class. Something that happens in the book may kick up some thoughts and feelings about yourself you can write about.

2. You may remember some experiences of your own that were similar to something that happened in the book. You may write about these experiences.

3. You may come to class some days feeling sad or happy or ticked off about something. Write what caused this feeling and what you did about it or plan to do about it.

4. I will be reading your reports every day and writing comments on them. You may not agree with my comments, or my comments even may make you mad. Defend yourself by reacting to these comments.

5. If I have misunderstood what you were saying in a previous report, write a report to straighten me out. Don't leave me thinking the wrong way.

6. IF YOU HIT A DAY WHERE YOU DRAW A COMPLETE BLANK AS TO WHAT TO WRITE, CALL FOR HELP AND THE GROUP AND I WILL HELP YOU COME UP WITH AN IDEA.

7. YOU MUST WRITE SOMETHING EVERY DAY IN CLASS. WATCH THAT CLASS TIME DOESN'T RUN OUT ON YOU BEFORE YOU GET SOMETHING DOWN! !!!!

Bibliotherapy is a counseling technique which guides the reader through identification, catharsis and insight. Research has shown it to be an effective counseling tool for the chronically disruptive student whose problems are the development of assertiveness, attitude change and self-development. It is efficient and economical for the counselor and for the student because it complements traditional patterns of counseling with a minimum of counselor time.

REMEDIATION READING FAILURES

In 1962, UNESCO defined literacy as being able to interact with one's environment so as to make a significant and meaningful contribution to its continued growth, change and development. No wonder parents are suing schools for graduating their illiterate children (if they haven't already dropped out or been kicked out of school). The problem stems from when, how and why reading is taught.

When? Ross (1976) suggests that beginning reading instruction at an arbitrarily selected age or grade does great injustice to many children. The only possible justification for reading instruction is the utility of possessing reading skills. No one has shown that between the ages of four and ten, children can better meet the responsibilities of childhood because they can read. The pressure on them to learn to read does not relate at all to what is expected of them in childhood but rather to expectations for the adolescent and the adult. No research has ever shown that early reading instruction results in a higher ultimate level of skill. Being "ready" to read is not absolute and can be regarded in relative terms. What would it take in teacher effort and teacher-student ratio to teach children to read at various ages? Some smart four-year-olds, with an excellent teacher on a one-to-one basis, can learn to

read but at a much slower rate than if we waited two or three years. Children forced, because of their ages, into premature reading instruction are prime candidates for remedial instruction, lowered self-esteem, poor attitudes toward school and illiteracy.

How? There is nothing magic about teaching reading. The Cuban experiment (Kozol, 1980) of the late 60's in which children were dispatched to the countryside to wipe out illiteracy (and accomplished the feat in nine months) attests to that. The training of the children took one week and included instruction in three areas: (1) the use of a Coleman lantern; (2) egalitarian behavior (sharing the work, food and floors with the host families); and (3) the use of generative words. These words were meaningful to the learners and could be broken down into syllables to make other words. For example, Tijolo means "brick" and by breaking the word into syllables using different vowels, other generative words can be made.

TA	TE	TI	TO	TU
JA	JE	JI	JO	JU
LA	LE	LI	LO	LU

Among the possibilities from this group are "luta" (struggle), "loja" (store), and "tela" (screen).

While English does not lend itself to this reconstruction, the principle of using words meaningful to the learner is powerful. Words that excite and motivate are power, police, hunger, poverty, fever, grief, love, lust, longing, lease, license, fear, infection, doctor, danger, fire, desire, progress, and pain.

And yet in America today, thirty years after Rudolph Flesch published Why Can't Johnny Read?, the battle between the phonics method and the look-say method continues to rage in school board meetings. This, despite the fact that most children learn to read in spite of a method and in spite of the teacher. Unfortunately, schools are still the principal source of the idea that literacy is equated with intelligence. If that were true, we reading teachers would be the smartest people around. The outrage is that we treat poor readers and non-readers as if they were stupid.

In point of fact, a distinction can be made between improper literacy and proper literacy for those of us who can "read." O'Neil (1970) defines improper

literacy as being able to read words across a page, getting generally what is superficially there. Being properly literate means you can bring your knowledge and your experience to bear on what passes before you. He contends that schools destroy a child's proper literacy when they teach reading as if it were another language, not as if it were a highly abstract representation of a language they already know well. Intuitive connections are erased. And so is knowledge. The child reviews only the surface of knowledge in geography's names, capitols and products; in science's taxonomy, and in history's linear succession of dates and events. If the number of illiterates were to include those of us improper literates who are deluded by the veneer of control we have been granted, the total would be staggering.

Why? The purposes for teaching reading are fuzzy even to reading teachers. Postman (1970) asked reading teachers "What is reading good for?" and got three unsatisfactory answers. The first group said that the ability to read helped children succeed in school. But that, he writes, is only a description of the rules of the school game and says nothing about the purpose of the rules.

A second group maintained that reading skill is a precondition to success because, unless one can read well, one is denied access to gainful and meaningful employment. The political question he raises is whether or not one's childhood education ought to be concerned with one's future employment. Purposes other than vocational training might be strongly argued when one considers that the second leading cause of death among adolescents is suicide, or that more people are hospitalized for mental illness than all other illnesses combined, or that one out of every 22 murders is committed by a parent against his child, or that the alcohol/drug abuse and dropout rate is ballooning. So much for vocational purposes.

The third group of reading teachers answered that the purpose of reading is "to open the student's mind to the wonders and riches of the written word, to give him access to great fiction and poetry, to permit him to function as an informed citizen, to have him experience the sheer pleasure of reading." Postman responds that this is a satisfactory answer but almost entirely untrue. It is true only to the extent that in our society, one cannot be easily governed unless one can read forms, regulations, notices, catalogues and road signs. If you cannot read, you can't be an obedient citizen or an enthusiastic consumer interested in all the products necessary for you to buy.

Thus, the purpose of reading appears to be political. It is interesting to note that in 1969 James Allen of the Department of Education pledged to stamp out illiteracy in the United States in ten years. Our government pumped $180 million into the Right to Read program with no noticeable effect. In fact, very few jobs require more than a fifth grade reading level which scarcely justifies the massive, compulsory, unrelenting reading programs that characterize most schools. There are more people standing in unemployment lines today who are literate than illiterate because literacy does not guarantee that you will get or keep a job. It does not mean you will survive better, live longer, stay healthier or be happy.

In America, the printed word no longer has the power to induce cataclysmic change (as it does in the newly literate Cuba) (Postman, 1970). Schools are turning our youth off by continuing to promote the idea that literacy is the richest source of aesthetic experience despite the fact that kids are spending over a billion dollars a year on records and tapes, Pac-Man, and movies. Schools are opting for political and social stasis as they insist on reading as a keystone of education.

How Can We Get Them to Read? The main source of wisdom is not to be found in the library, which carefully excludes the most interesting books, but in the electric plug. The most devastating mistake a teacher can make with illiterate adolescents is to hand them books. Use instead what they know and are comfortable with: videocassettes, tape recorders, movies, television, records. Design packaged programs using the new technology and allow them to choose when and what they will learn. This, of course, will eliminate bureaucratic hierarchies because everyone will have equal access to all information; teachers will learn along with the students and even have time to help them with more emotionally wrenching problems. The mystery will be taken from reading as the barricades between teacher and students disappear.

Counselors and teachers may be asking themselves if this means reading should not be taught. No, but it does mean an opposition to premature reading instruction, to labeling poor readers or non-readers as stupid, or labeling what they know as less important than what we know, to teaching reading to anyne who doesn't want to learn, and to teaching reading for the wrong reasons. It also means support for each American learning to read to "extend his control over his own life and environment and allow him to continue to live rationally in words with his life and decisions" (O'Neil, 1970, p. 263).

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Eyde, D. R. Positive approaches to behavior management. In Monograph series in behavior disorders. Des Moines, IA: Drake University, 1982.

Greelis, M., & Haarman, B. ABC's of video therapy. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications, 1980.

Hunter, C. S. J., & Harman, D. Adult illiteracy in the United States. New York: McGraw Hill, 1979.

Judy, S. The ABC's of literacy. New York: Oxford University Press, 1980.

Kozol, J. Prisoners of silence. New York: Continuum, 1980.

Literacy as a factor in development. Paris: UNESCO, Minedlit/3, 1962.

O'Neil, W. Proper literacy. Harvard Educational Review, 1970, 40(2), 260-263.

Postman, N. The politics of reading. Harvard Educational Review, 1970, 40(2), 244-252.

Ross, A. Psychological aspects of learning disorders of children. New York: McGraw Hill, 1976.

Schrank, F., & Engels, D. Bibliotherapy as a counseling adjunct: Research findings. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1981, 59 (15), 143-147.

Towns, P. Educating disturbed adolescents. New York: Grune & Stratton, 1981.

Tsimpoukis, C. Bibliocounseling: Theory and research implications for an application in counseling and guidance (Doctoral dissertation, University of Wisconsin, 1968). Dissertation Abstracts International, 1968, 29, 799.

COUNSELING CULTURALLY DIFFERENT STUDENTS

It could be said that all chronically disruptive students are the same regardless of race, creed or color. This, however, is not the case. Even within the same race or culture, behavioral pathologies tend to be more heterogeneous. It is quite unlikely that two children with the same diagnosed disorder will present symptoms in a similar fashion. Differences in behavioral patterns are more pronounced when discussing minority cultures, particularly black children.

We have already seen a trend of misdiagnosing blacks in the psychiatric setting (Lewis, Balla, & Shanak, 1979; Lewis, Shanak, Cohen, Kligfeld, & Frisone, 1980). These studies have demonstrated the discrepancies that exist between sending a white youth to a psychiatric hospital for treatment and sending a black youth to the court system for punishment.

The purpose of this chapter is not to point out racism or biases. Yet, it would be difficult to discuss alternative educational and counseling strategies without first indicating the gaps in diagnoses. Educational plans and counseling techniques hinge on diagnoses, if they are to be effective. Current findings suggest that minority children, blacks in particular, may develop different language patterns and learning styles (Cooper, 1981; Nelson, 1981). If black and white children develop different language styles then we would also be looking at different ways of assimilating knowledge. To take it a step further, alternative educational strategies and counseling techniques will have to be considered. Solomon (1972) found that minority and disavantaged students even show creativity in ways different from those of the majority population and, consequently, go unrecognized. Another area that could be discussed here is attitudinal disparities that exist between white teachers and counselors and their racially different students. The literature abounds with such findings (Archibald & Chemers, 1974; Barnes, 1977; Peretti & Swenson, 1975; Perez, 1980; Rajpal, 1972; Swick, 1974; Washington, 1979). However, attitudes will not be directly dealt with in this chapter.

The following presentation will discuss issues surrounding the controversy and confusion about how to deal with the chronically disruptive black student. It is important to note that this does not imply definitive "answers," but more productive

ways of dealing with these youths. Another point to be made here is that this is not an indictment of racism against the majority culture. The purpose is to provoke thought about being more open to accepting alternative methods when dealing with this population. It seems logical that dealing with a culturally different population requires different strategies if we are to derive positive outcomes.

DEVELOPMENT OF COGNITIVE STYLES

Prior to a discussion of the various counseling and educational strategies that may be effective for this population, it is important to understand the contrasts that exist between black and white students, particularly how problems develop and how they can be remediated. Development theories by Piaget, Erickson, Freud, Maslow, and others mention little about the impact of culture on the developing individual, and even less about the development of cognitive styles.

Perhaps the fundamental modality for assessing learning style is language. It is language children seek to use proactively in their environments. Nelson (1981) discusses how children's language may develop differently not only because of cultural differences but also because of a general linguistic division between black and white language development. Nelson points to types of language styles. One is referential, which is generally used by the white, middle-class population. This group is taught objects (nouns) with some verbs, proper names, and adjectives. The focus here is on learning objects and their use. The second style is called expressive, where the vocabulary focuses on social routines, with more use of pronouns. Nelson calls the referential style nominal and the expressive style pronominal. It was found that blacks and other minorities fall within the expressive category.

Nelson elaborates that the mother's use of language may be as important for the child's language pattern acquisition as the kind of language. If this is true, there are direct implications for cultural influence. In a similar theoretical approach, Cooper (1981) suggests that the black learner possesses a holistic cognitive style, while the white learner has an analytical learning preference. Holistic learners tend to relate with the environment and use concrete imaging to express themselves, whereas analytical learners are not usually distracted by social concerns and tend to be more task-oriented. In Kagan's (1965) categories of reflective and impulsive cognitive styles for primary children learning to read, the reflective learner coin-

cides with Cooper's analytical and Nelson's referential learners, who are predominantly white middle-class students.

Witkin (1950) has identified what he calls field dependent-field independent learners. Field independence indicates the ability to perceive specific objects within a perpetual pattern as discrete entities. Field dependence describes a perception process in which the stimulus effects of specific aspects of a perceptual pattern are overwhelmed by the stimulus effects of the general or total pattern. Again, it can be pointed out that the field independent learner is congruous with the white student and the field dependent learner with the black student. Table I provides an overall illustration of these differences. Almanza and Mosley (1980) discuss the issue of curriculum adaption and modification to take these diverse learning styles into account. For example, the black student is more active than the white student, and the curriculum should accordingly break down teaching segments into shorter periods. Exceptional minority students, moreover, possess information relationally and will learn more quickly if relational cues are used, e.g., size, shape and length of letters in the learning of words.

Table I

Cognitive Style and Environmental Influence

Black Learning Style	Black Parenting Style of Teaching
Holistic Gestalt Expressive Deductive Field Dependent Impulsive	1. Provides child with ways of dealing with peers. 2. Uses social cues. 3. Words used to engage other's interest.
White Learning Style	**White Parenting Style of Teaching**
Analytic Referential Scientific Inductive Field Independent Reflective	1. Provides child with single words. 2. Uses referential cues. 3. Words related to objects in the environment.

(Michael L. Riley)

These findings highlight the problems that beset the culturally different student. The American educational system directly correlates with the analytical, referential and field independent learner, who is usually white. The implications here are profound. What happens to the black learner whose cognitive style is in direct conflict with the public school system? There appears to be an overrepresentation of black students in special education programs, with the exception of classes for the learning disabled.

If the clash between learning and teaching styles has a heavy impact on the normally developing black youth, one can imagine how it may totally impair the exceptional black student. The techniques described in Table 2 illustrate how innovative and even radical methods may be used to help remediate and/or ameliorate aggressive and hostile feelings held by this population.

THE SCHOOL COUNSELOR AS AN INTERVENER

The school counselor is perhaps the primary source that can be utilized in helping school systems with chronically disruptive black students. Unfortunately, however, confusion exists about the counselor's role; e.g., counselors often assume administrative duties and have little time for counseling. Meanwhile, black students are suspended from school at twice the rate of white students, and for every two black students that graduate from high school, one drops out. These figures indicate that the counselor's role has to be clarified and that alternative and innovative methods must be implemented immediately.

In order to effect change, the first necessity is to understand the cultural realities of the black child. Afro-American cultural dimensions must be incorporated into the helping process if we are to provide a positive impact (Cross, 1974; Lee, 1982; Toldson & Pasteur, 1976). Understanding the black culture is to know that great emphasis is placed on peer dynamics and group cohesiveness, and that black students' identity depends on how the group sees them. This can be exploited in a productive way with group counseling for black students, although of course it is not a new phenomenon. It can also be used effectively to help develop positive black self-identity, interpersonal relationships, positive attitudes toward academic achievement, and career goal setting (Lee, 1982). It should be noted here that there is no specific group counseling technique that should be adhered to, but in light of the black experience, a more holistic and expressive technique will tend to be more effective.

Table 2
THE COUNSELOR AND THE BLACK STUDENT
STUDENT DEVELOPMENT FACILITATOR

COUNSELOR FUNCTION	IMPLEMENTATION
Personal-Social Growth	
Facilitating the development of positive Black self-identity	Conduct self-awareness groups emphasizing self-appreciation through cultural heritage: Use culturally specific curriculum materials and aesthetic dimensions to cultivate self-pride from a Black perspective in group interactions.
Facilitating the development of positive interpersonal relations and responsible behavior	Explore the nature and importance of positive interpersonal relationships in growth groups: Incorporate traditional Afro-American notions of community into group interactions to develop greater interpersonal respect, particularly between young Black men and women. Conduct social behavior guidance groups: Facilitate collective explorations of pragmatic strategies for enhancing behavioral repertoires for optimal school success while maintaining culturally learned response styles.
Academic Achievement	
Facilitating the development of positive attitudes toward academic achievement	Conduct motivation groups: Develop group guidance activities focusing on inherent Black potential which incorporate historical and contemporary references to the educational experiences of influential Afro-Americans.
Facilitating the development of academic skills and competencies	Conduct guidance workshops in the following areas: (1) Academic planning (2) Study skills and time management (3) Testwiseness (4) Remediation
Career Development	
Facilitating the vocational choice and career development process	Develop relevant guidance and training experience related to the world of work: (1) Conduct information forums on non-stereotyped jobs and careers. (2) Sponsor "Career Days" and invite Black career role models to explain their perceptions and experiences in the world of work. (3) Develop internship and co-op experiences with Black businesses and professionals. (4) Conduct workshops on the mechanics of the world of work--i.e., how to look for, apply and interview for a job. (5) Conduct workshops on the rules of work--i.e., proper attire, behavior and attitude in the work setting. (6) Conduct workshops on survival issues--i.e., money and its management, tax concerns, social security, etc.

Adapted from Lee, 1982.

INNOVATIVE INTERVENTION APPROACHES

Clearly traditional methods of counseling do not work for black youths (Mayfield, 1972) because of the antithesis between learning styles: intellectual, abstract and analytic vs. affective, expressive and holistic. Toldson and Pasteur (1976) have outlined three areas to consider if intervention is to be efficacious. The first component is black affirmation. This means that blacks must accept their African ancestry and uniqueness as a culture, not necessarily as a race. The centuries-old belief that black means inferior and contemptible must be reversed if black youths are to have healthier attitudes about themselves. The second component is educational practices. If a black child is to experience success in the school setting, learning experiences need to be based on more affective curricula. Reading, for example, could be taught expressively and holistically, with music and direct applications to life experiences. Moreover, blacks are basically a communal or cooperative group, and this stands in direct conflict with the emphasis in most schools on competition and individualism. The third and last component is therapeutic practices. This encompasses the maximal use of expressive modes inherent in the black experience. Again, the use of group counseling techniques and psychodrama may be effective, or any group strategy that focuses on evaluating self-esteem and group esteem.

Cross (1974) has reported on successful intervention with delinquent black females in a group home setting. She pointed out that because most group homes for this population were geared toward white adolescents, recidivism was quite high. Counseling approaches were often analytic and abstract, with a limited affective orientation. Another problem was the lack of black staff members to help bridge communication gaps with white counselors.

Cross also outlined three components necessary for change. The first, again, is acceptance of being black. This does not mean just clothes, hairstyles and music, but the whole life experience of being raised in the black culture. A true black identity tends to provide strength and encouragement. The second component is to eradicate feelings of inadequacy, especially the assumptions of sickness and deviance. In the group home punitive discipline was not used. There were strong expectations to act appropriately and equally strong encouragement to express feelings freely so that inappropriate acting out would become unnecessary. The third component suggested

by Cross is understanding the expressive mechanism in black culture. Strong emotions and aggression result from years of frustration with the demands of ghetto survival. Counselors must remain mindful of this and help find ways for constructive expression of anger.

Other dimensions covered in the literature are Black English and its impact on self-image (Davis & Armstrong, 1981) and a social studies curriculum that discusses racial attitudes of white children, distorted text books, and the role of the teacher (Joyce, 1969). Banks (1976) illustrates the powerlessness felt by black children that could be eradicated through teacher training. Negative teacher attitudes, subtle or overt and sometimes unconscious, alienate black students and require a reformation in teacher education. Finally, Greeson (1980) suggests an evaluation of scholarly writing on the black experience according to three dimensions: philosophical, political and pedagogical. Table 3 describes the various components to be assessed within each dimension.

The movement toward change is clear and substantial, but it will be some time before we can see wide-scale change in attitudes and institutional practices. With more research to test the efficacy of these innovative approaches, we may obtain the "proof" that often serves as an impetus to change. One of the more promising areas may be the development of neuropsychology, where brain functions and hemispherical preferences are assessed. The outcomes could be quite rewarding because the emphasis is on the brain and information processing which, by their nature, seem free of racial and cultural bias.

Table 3
A SUGGESTED CHECKLIST FOR THE EVALUATION OF SCHOLARSHIP ON THE BLACK EXPERIENCE AND THE BLACK COMMUNITY

Dimension	Relevant Questions to be Asked by Reviewer
Philosophical	1. Is the writer making certain metaphysical (undemonstrable) assumptions about the universe, reality, etc., which conflict with Black Reality? 2. Are certain invidious comparisons of man (as concept) being espoused? 3. Is an ethnocentric categorical ethic being imposed on the Black Person or community? 4. Are any universal Black (human) values being violated?
Political	1. Is the material "shot through" with polemics? 2. Is the writer trying to tell Blacks how they must proceed in reaching their goals? 3. Are Black Power efforts being subsumed under some inconsequential, ubiquitous notion of universality? 4. Does the material hint of "polite racism" or paternalism which will fail the test of confrontation?
Pedagogical	1. Are the behavioral/learning objectives structured in terms which are true to both sound psycho-educational principles and crucial intra-ethnic power needs? 2. Are the behavioral or interventional efforts geared toward imparting concrete, usable skills or information at all conceptual levels? 3. Do the proposed programs benefit the child more than the interventionist?

Adapted from Greeson, 1980.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Almanza, H. P. Curriculum adaptions and modifications for the culturally diverse handicapped children. Exceptional Children, 1980, 46, 608-613.

Archibald, R. D., & Chemers, M. H. The relationship of teacher's cognitive style to minority student satisfaction. Journal of Afro-American Issues, 1974, 2, 21-34.

Banks, J. A. Crucial issues in the education of Afro-American children. Journal of Afro-American Issues, 1976, 4, 393-407.

Barnes, W. J. How to improve teacher behavior in multiethnic classrooms. Educational Leadership, 1977, 34, 511-515.

Cooper, G. Black language and holistic cognitive style. The Western Journal of Black Studies, 1981, 5, 201-207.

Cross, A. The black experience: Its importance in the treatment of black clients. Child Welfare, 1974, 53, 158-167.

Davis, B. D., & Armstrong, H. The impact of teaching Black English on self-image and achievement. The Western Journal of Black Studies, 1981, 5, 208-218.

Greeson, A. D. The educational pathologist in black special education. Journal of Negro Education, 1980, 49, 41-51.

Joyce, W. W. Minority groups in American society: Imperatives for educators. Social Education, 1969, 33, 429-433.

Kagan, J. Reflection-impulsivity and reading ability in primary grade children. Child Development, 1965, 36, 609-628.

Lee, C. C. The school counselor and the black child: Critical roles and functions. Journal of Non-White Concerns, 1982, 10, 95-101.

Lewis, D. O., Balla, D. A., & Shanak, S. S. Some evidence of race bias in the diagnosis and treatment of the juvenile offender. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1979, 49, 53-61.

Lewis, D. O., Shanak, S. S., Cohen, R. J., Kligfeld, M., & Frisone, G. Race bias in the diagnosis of disposition of violent adolescents. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1980, 137, 1211-1216.

Mayfield, J. You touch my black aesthetic and I'l touch yours. In A. Gayle Jr. (Ed.), The black aesthetic. New York: Anchor, 1972.

Nelson, K. Individual differences in language development: Implications for development and language. Developmental Psychology, 1981, 17, 170-187.

Peretti, P. O., & Swenson, K. Busing, teachers' attitudes and interracial discipline problems. Illinois School Journal, 1975, 55, 49-55.

Perez, S. A. Multicultural education: Why teachers need it. College Student Journal, 1980, 14, 203-204.

Rajpal, P. I. Teacher judgments of minority children. Integrated Education, 1972, 10, 33-36.

Solomon, A. O. Analysis of creative thinking of disadvantaged children. The Journal of Creative Behavior, 1972, 8, 293-295.

Swick, K. J. Challenging pre-service and in-service teachers' perceptions of minority group children: A review of research. Journal of Negro Education, 1974, 43, 194-201.

Toldson, I. J., & Pasteur, A. B. Therapeutic dimensions of the black aesthetic. Journal of Non-White Concerns, 1976, 4, 105-117.

Washington, V. The role of teacher behavior in school desegregation. Educational Horizons, 1979, 57, 145-156.

Witkin, H. A. Individual differences in ease of perception of embedded figures. Journal of Personality, 1950, 19, 1-15.

PREVENTIVE AND ANTICIPATORY COUNSELING STRATEGIES

It is evident that unmet mental health needs are pervasive within disrupted school settings. It is evident also that counseling strategies must become more proactive and preventive rather than reactive and crisis-oriented (Rimel, 1979). In the past, three major types of preventive programs for the chronically disruptive had been identified: programs designed to reduce the probability of recidivism through involving multidisciplinary personnel; projects aimed at early educational intervention with students who have the potential for disruptive and/or delinquent behavior; and programs aimed at change in the social milieu of the high-risk youngster through changes in community.

More recently, prevention counseling has meant direct investment in bringing out changes in teachers, parents and pupil personnel through teacher discussion groups, parent study groups and counseling groups to establish guidance procedures for classrooms (Dinkmeyer, 1973). Counseling approaches designed primarily to prevent rather than directly treat individual disruptive behaviors include mental health consultation, psychological education, developmental group counseling, stress management and anticipatory counseling. Each of these prevention strategies will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

MENTAL HEALTH CONSULTATION

The purpose of mental health consultation is to help educators and parents deal more effectively with disruptive students rather than just getting rid of them. The emphasis in consultation according to Berlin (1967) is to help teachers develop insight and understanding of the disruption, to increase their objectivity or abilities to "objectify" disruption, and to provide alternative methods for dealing with classroom problems. Additionally, consultation should relieve teacher anxieties and defuse the high emotional charge that surrounds the problem. According to Stickney (1968) the consultant collects, analyzes and reduces the mass of data to manageable explanations and offers explicit recommendations regarding the helping actions to be taken, including identification of other school or community services needed to solve the problem.

A case consultation model with the classroom teacher as case finder is the most common approach to prevention identified in the professional literature (Simonds, 1973). Robins (1974) observed that selection of a specific child for evaluation based on teacher reports of behavioral difficulties is usually called prevention; selection on the basis of a referral for help is called treatment. Action plans that include classroom observations, conferences with principals and teachers, curricular and classroom management suggestions, home visits and liaison with other community agencies typify the consultative role.

Other approaches suggest systems level problem solving involving remedial efforts aimed at those attributes of schools that precipitate deviant behavior. Some of the school practices that may be corrected through consultation include: (1) an overreliance on punitive methods of control; (2) a mismatch between the reading level of students and instructional materials; (3) aggressive behavior on the part of the teacher; (4) the use of cathartic activities to release aggression; and (5) the misuse of behavior management procedures (Mayer & Butterworth, 1981). Systematic consultation relative to these factors in the school leads to empirically verified reductions in school vandalism and student disruption (Mayer & Butterworth, 1979, 1981). The preventive strategies in the Mayer and Butterworth (1981) projects emphasized: (1) high-interest academic material appropriate to the student's developmental level; (2) positive recognition for progress in working on and completing assignments; (3) reduction in the use of punishment; (4) appropriate and timely use of various learning principles; (5) behavior management procedures; and (6) proper training of counselors and school psychologists in behavioral consultation skills. Prevention through mental health consultation aimed at remediating or eliminating the contributory factors is a viable but underutilized option.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

Nearly a decade ago, Ivey and Alschuler (1973) persuasively suggested in a special issue on psychological education that counselors could "no longer afford the luxury of treating individuals or small groups while ignoring the 'sick' institutions that produce the symptoms." Counselors must take some responsibility for preventing these illnesses by "restructuring the learning process, interpersonal and intergroup relationships and schools so that there will be more healthy human beings

and fewer casualties" (p. 591). The counselor as "psychological educator" assumes the metagoal of teaching individuals intentionality (Ivey, 1969). Intentionality, according to Ivey, involves the capacity to anticipate alternative experiences (future expectancies and goal setting), choose among them (value clarification), and attain desired goals (competence enhancement through goal-directed behaviors). The basic strategies that characterize psychological education irrespective of curriculum content are the assumptions that (1) it is more effective to promote long term internalization than short term satisfaction; (2) it is more effective to teach psychosocial skills, including moral reasoning, sequentially from an age/stage developmental framework; (3) it is more effective to systematically but eclectically organize several counseling procedures rather than rely on a single approach, such as behavior therapy, Gestalt therapy, or affective education; (4) it is more humane to "treat" the school along with the child (Ivey & Alschuler, 1973). Psychological techniques may be infused into ongoing academic areas or a special course may be taught. Lastly, the helping skills of counselors must be demystified, demonstrated and shared (Carkhuff, 1971). Problem solving, decision making and valuing must be taught within the school's "hidden curriculum" of socialization.

The mental health components of this approach that are particularly related to the prevention of school disruption include an emphasis on intrapersonal development, interpersonal perceptions that enrich and expand the self, extrapersonal perceptions of the individual and group in relation to society, and the skills to cope with, contribute to or change societal situations (Vicary, 1979). The tactics of psychological education, then, should be employed to help all students identify and internalize personal goals and ideas and to use this information about the self to increase current and future adjustment. In many respects, modern career education and affective training programs inherited the legacy of psychological education. However, the precepts appear to be almost in suspension in current schooling practices as schools come under accountability attacks and retreat to something called "basics." The counselor then must remind schools of the true goals of basic education--to appropriately and sensitively socialize young human beings through education, not in spite of education.

DEVELOPMENTAL GROUP COUNSELING

Group counseling has been shown to be both efficient and effective when common problems among groups of students are identifiable and resolution of those problems can be facilitated by the group process (Muro & Freeman, 1969). Group counseling techniques are well suited for psychological education of students who feel different from age mates and students who lack adaptive social skills. Group counseling provides a more nearly real life situation in which to work through actual and anticipated conflicts. Unlike one-to-one counseling, new social learnings are encouraged through natural social contexts and evaluative feedback from peers is immediate. Chronically disruptive students need to get outside of themselves to become more other-directed and less centered on their own distress. The group process aids in objectifying behavior. A certain amount of objectivity is necessary to accommodate social transactions. A group, if properly guided, provides opportunities for all students to explore their own ideas and actions, share them and integrate the reactions of others.

School counseling groups can help children renegotiate, if needed, the various stages of socioemotional growth in a sequential, developmental manner. Social support as well as learning opportunities for the developmental tasks of identity, relating and control (competence) can be afforded a larger number of pupils than the traditional one-to-one counseling.

Group processes can be utilized for students who are already experiencing difficulties or for students merely at risk for school difficulties. Generally, a balancing of problems and non-problems makes groups easier to guide and provides a number of role models. If the group is made up of only disruptive students, then little opportunity exists for increasing social adaptiveness. The group size should depend upon the age and maturity of the children involved. Younger children benefit from interaction with groups of four to six children. Older children may be in groups of six to eight members. The group size should be determined in part by (1) the opportunities afforded each member to participate as much or as little as desired; (2) the ability of the counselor to be aware of and deal effectively with the interactions; and (3) the developmental needs of the group (Dimick & Huff, 1974). If the group focus is on developmental and/or common situational crises of daily living then a once-a-week "class" type of structure is appropriate. If the focus is on intense skill building then more meetings will be required.

The developmental sequence of psychosocial adjustment and attachment is fairly well known and described in the professional literature. The use of group processes to re-mediate failed tasks, to consolidate growth, or to clarify the experiences needed to facilitate ongoing development is somewhat neglected in preventive work with school-aged children.

STRESS MANAGEMENT AND ANTICIPATORY COUNSELING

The transition points along the socialization continuum are sources of stress for students, teachers and ultimately the school system. In general, teachers are held accountable for classroom disruption, an awesome responsibility, when one considers the myriad of factors that influence classroom ecology. The fight or flight responses to stressors affect students as well. Selye (1974) defined human stress as "the non-specific response of the body to any demand made upon it" (p. 14). Forcers, pressures or threats that produce the feelings of tension or strain were identified by Selye as "stressors"; when confronted with a stressor, the body responds with an alarm reaction and mobilized body systems "fight or flee." After the alarm reaction, certain mind/body systems move into a resistance state and finally succumb to fatigue or an exhaustion state. If the body stays in a state of perpetual protective readiness, physical and emotional symptoms appear. Some stress is necessary for growth but the secret of healthy stress is achieving the match between environmental demands and the individual's current, unique response capabilities. One person's stress may be another's challenge. Some forms of stress give the process of teaching and learning its spice and zest; others wear teachers and students down and out.

Stress reactions may be predominantly physical such as headaches, stomach-aches and chest pains, but generally stress reactions are interactive and accompanied by disruptions in thinking and social relationships as well. Each personality has different needs for certainty, complexity, and timing and pacing of environmental demands. If an individual's stress response capabilities are highly developed and the quality and quantity of stressors in the environment are low, then the problem solving self adapts. If stressors are high and adaptive response repertoires are low, then the self may be overwhelmed and unable to adjust. Figure 1 shows how the

environmental demands of school and home and the individual response options act together, resulting in adaptation or in mind/body exhaustion and distress. The mismatch of demand-tasks and individual response skills results in physical, psychological and social symptoms of stress (Eyde & Dickenson, 1982).

Much has been written about symptoms of adult stress manifested in teaching or counseling behaviors (see Leffingwell, 1979, on teacher stress and Warmath & Shelton, 1976, on counselor stress). Very little has been written on identification and management of stress in school-aged children. Events that stress students vary greatly with respect to intensity, duration, predictability, complexity, frequency and the degree of resultant disorganization in the learning responses.

Significant changes in the youngster's primary social and emotional support systems, as well as changes within the child's own psychological system tend to be predictors of distress (Eyde, 1980). For example, the prolonged absence of a parent, divorce or separation, change in the parent's health, change of responsibility in the family, addition or loss of a sibling, changes in income, even family vacations can be stressful to children, even those with adaptive resources. Changes in support such as a loss of a friend, death of a pet, change of teacher or school are stressors. Psychological sources of stress include illness, injury, puberty, physical growth (too little or too much). Changes in the school system, school difficulties or successes, and trouble with fellow students are stressful to youngsters. Many students live in daily terror of other students or certain teachers. Being younger, smaller, poorer, or less accepted influences students more than the system acknowledges. Being afraid of the proverbial darkness of human relations is too often minimized by adults, leaving the youngsters to cope as best as they can with the foolish and unfounded fears that surround growing up.

Counselors can anticipate certain childhood stressors and help groups or individual children identify "stability zones" at home and school and teach alternative coping devices to increase stress resistiveness. The changing and increasingly complex demands of growing up in a stressed, Type A society require that counselors provide anticipatory stress management strategies (Klingman, 1978). Goal setting, cognitive restructuring and rescripting, appropriate exercise and relaxation training are but a few of the stress management strategies currently in vogue.

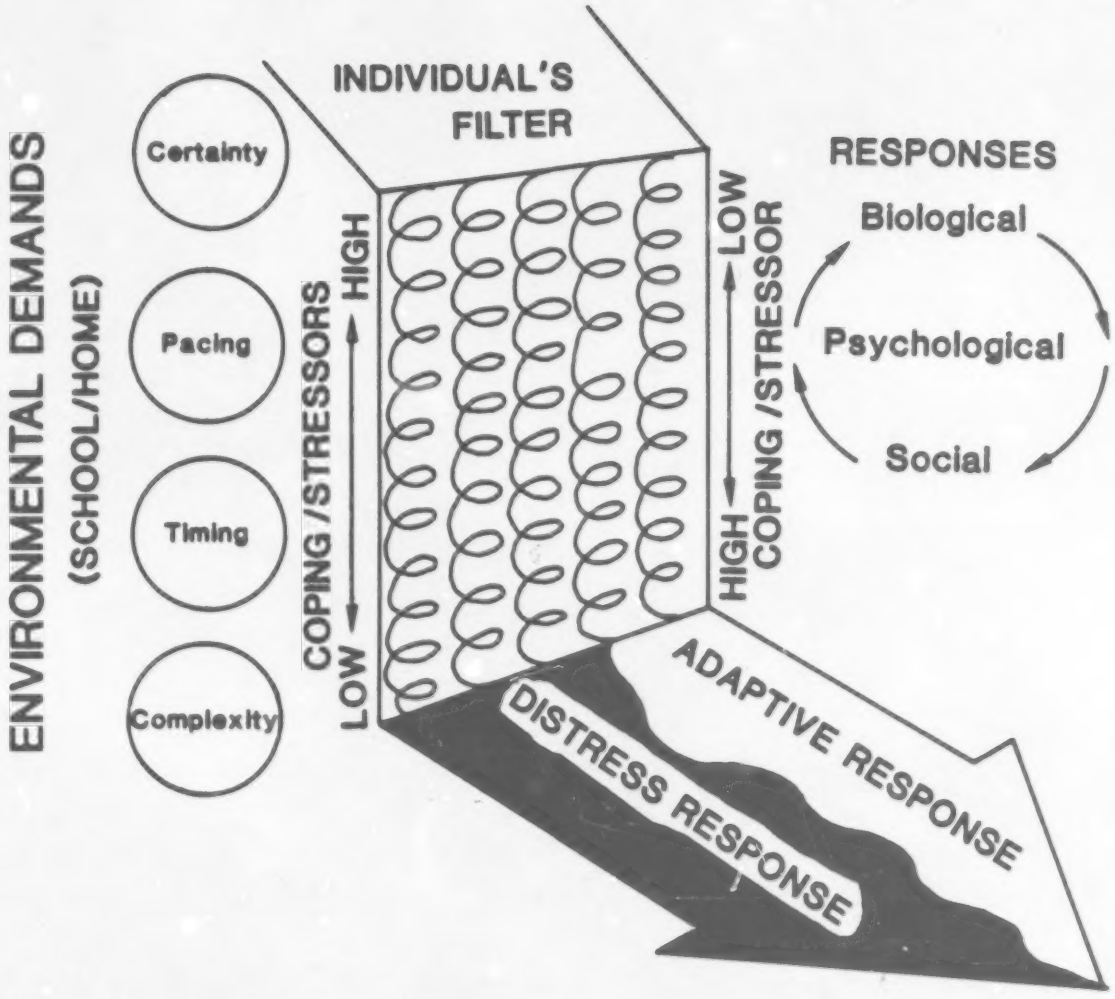

Figure 1. Understand Stress. (Eyde & Dickenson, 1982.)

Since deep muscle relaxation is an excellent technique for counselors to add to their bag of tricks, it is described in detail. The theory of progressive relaxation (Jacobsen, 1938) is based on the recognition that the body's response to anxiety and chronic stress is frequently deep muscle tension. When deep muscle tension is systematically reduced, a mind/body condition results that is incompatible with the usual physiological response of stress. Deep muscle relaxation takes several weeks of practice before significant results are realized; however, it is not a difficult technique for students to master. The individual or group instructions for deep muscle relaxation are as follows:

Begin with one muscle group at a time creating tension for about 8-10 seconds in each area followed by 30-40 seconds of relaxation before moving on to the next muscle. Give yourself commands to tense and then relax the muscle groups in the following sequence:

Forehead - raise eyebrows high
Eyes - squint tight
Jaw - clench teeth pulling jaw downward
Back of neck - push chin down on chest
Shoulders - press back against chair or floor
Upper arm - tense the "popeye" muscle
Lower arm - clench fist tightly
Upper torso - tighten rib cage
Lower torso - tighten buttock muscles
Upper leg - lift feet slightly off floor
Lower leg - point toes toward ceiling with heel on floor
Feet - curl toes

It is important that during the tension phase, attention is given to the sensation of the tenseness and tightness. During the relaxation phase, totally relax muscles. It is helpful to think of words that connote a relaxed state, such as calm, peaceful, serene, etc. Both the tension and relaxation phases are important for successful completion of the exercise.

Don't be overly concerned with whether you are "doing it right." You will develop a style that feels comfortable to you. Just keep in mind the objective; to tense and relax each muscle group alternately, allowing time to experience each phase and each separate state.

As you practice the exercise, you may find at completion you feel a little disoriented indicating that you are reaching a deeper state of relaxation. Sit quietly for a few moments and you will re-orient. The total exercise should take 15-20 minutes and should be done daily.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Berlin, J. Preventive aspects of mental health consultation to schools. Mental Hygiene, 1967, 51, 34-40.

Carkhuff, R. The development of human resources. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1971.

Dimick, K. M., & Huff, V. E. Child counseling. Dubuque, IA: W. C. Brown, Co., 1974.

Dinkmeyer, D. Elementary and school counseling: Prospects and potential. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 52, 171-174.

Eyde, D. R. Counseling the emotionally disturbed. In L. Benjamin & G. R. Walz (Eds.), Counseling exceptional people. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan, ERIC Counseling and Personnel Services Clearinghouse, 1980.

Eyde, D. R., & Dickenson, J. Stress management starter kit. Omaha, NB: Hope Publishing Company, 1982.

Ivey, A. E. The intentional individual: A process outcome view of behavioral psychology. Counseling Psychologist, 1969, 1, 59-60.

Ivey, A. E., & Alschuler, A. S. An introduction to the field. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1973, 51, 591-597.

Jacobsen, E. Progressive relaxation. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938.

Klingman, A. Child in stress: Anticipatory guidance in the framework of the educational system. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1978, 57, 22-26.

Leffingwell, R. J. The role of the middle school counselor in the reduction of stress in teachers. Elementary School Guidance and Counseling, 1979, 13(4), 286-290.

Mayer, G. R., & Butterworth, T. W. A preventive approach to school violence and vandalism: An experimental study. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1979, 57, 436-441.

Mayer, G. R., & Butterworth, T. W. Evaluating a preventive approach to reducing school vandalism. Kappan, 1981, 62, 498-499.

Muro, J. J., & Freeman, S. L. Readings in group counseling. Scranton, PA: International Textbook Company, 1969.

Rimel, E. G. Is it feasible to offer guidance and counseling programs or services as a preventive package rather than crisis orientation? The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 1979, 45, 62-63.

Robins, L. Antisocial behavior disturbances of childhood: Prevalence, prognosis and prospects. In E. J. Anthony & C. Kaupernik (Eds.), The child in his family: Children at psychiatric risk. New York: Wiley, 1974.

Selye, H. Stress without distress. New York: Lippincott, 1974.

Simonds, J. F. School mental health case consultation: Program description and follow-up study. The Journal of School Health, 1973, 33, 557-561.

Stickney, S. Schools are our community mental health centers. American Journal of Psychiatry, 1968, 124, 1407-1414.

Vicary, J. R. The affective domain as prevention. Health Education, January-February, 1979, 11-12.

Warmath, C. F., & Shelton. The ultimate disappointment: The burned out counselor. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 55, 172-175.

A POSTSCRIPT: IMPLICATIONS FOR PRESERVICE AND INSERVICE TRAINING

Chronically disruptive students are particularly distressed by their lack of reading skills (Kolers, 1972) and their problems with verbal communication (Graubard, 1969). It seems self-evident that counselor preparation should emphasize more skill training in the identification and recommendation of remediation of these problem areas. There are other areas of preservice emphasis that are not so obvious. Counselors quite naturally expect to do what they have been prepared to do within the school system that employs them. Counselors at the elementary level expect to work more problem solving with teachers and parents. Counselors at the secondary level expect to work more directly with maturing students' problem seeking as they prepare for adulthood in the larger society. Instead of the warm, supportive, empathic, interpersonal responsibilities prescribed in preservice training, the counselor finds himself/herself functioning as a mere enforcer of administrative policies and as a scapegoat for classroom disruption. Role confusion is rampant among working counselors and role conflicts are becoming more stressful. Perhaps the more significant gaps in preservice, as well as needed inservice, experiences are (1) failure to appreciate the need for ethnographic-like observational skills in order to function as a psychoecologist; (2) failure to appreciate organizational dynamics in terms of systems theory including management of human and nonhuman resources, administration of resources, and getting things accomplished through others; and (3) failure to teach anthropological-like approaches to culturally different, especially minority, folkways, mores and values.

Classroom teachers, administrators and other pupil personnel need information relative to the identification and management of disruptive students. Consequently, counselors must inservice them as well as being inserviced themselves. School staff must learn to use both a problem solving/problem seeking model to ensure the academic and psychosocial progress of all students. Problem solving is well described in counseling literature. Problem seeking approaches place more emphasis on early detection and prevention of disruption rather than treatment per se.

An example of an inservice technique that could be used for early detection is a teacher checklist of perceived or actual problems filled out on students about three

weeks after the beginning of school and reviewed periodically. Other areas of inservice experiences include stress and its management. Physical, behavioral and affect management techniques also need to be reviewed throughout the school year. The sources, symptoms and outcomes of disruptive behaviors must be reviewed by staff routinely since just getting rid of a particular youngster will not truly resolve the problems. Counselors must be provided with and provide class teachers with alternative modes for communicating with distressed and disruptive students. It will be less costly of human and financial resources in the long run if counselors identify model strategies and teach systems to implement them, rather than attempting to simply change the child. Change strategies must be actualized on all levels and counselors must be prepared to understand and influence multi-factorial change.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Graubard, P. S. Utilizing the group in teaching disturbed delinquents to learn. Exceptional Children, 1969, 36, 267-272.

Kolers, P. Experiments in reading. Scientific American, 1972, 227, 84-91.

SUMMARY

School counseling systems are increasingly required to meet the diverse needs of children and youths who are disturbing the school environment. Behaviors of distressed students in the mainstream of classroom settings often are not clearly defined self-labeling actions but represent dysfunctioning classroom ecologies. Hence, responsibility for meeting the chronically disruptive child's needs is not necessarily singled out as the responsibility of counselors, teachers and/or administrators. Classroom conflicts and problems of discipline continue to disrupt the teaching/learning process, affecting academic as well as socioemotional growth and development. The acting out child cannot be neatly classified and treated with a singular counseling approach. Consequently, school counselors are expected to support and/or initiate intervention strategies responsive to the complexity of needs characteristic of the chronically disruptive student. This text provides counselors with a repository of knowledge and emphasizes innovative but practical techniques for intervention with this highly visible and distressed school population.

The counselor's direct or indirect educator role in relationship to classroom teachers, parents, pupil personnel, and the child is explored through suggested modifications in the curriculum, management, and motivation of all system members. Counseling strategies for the culturally different student as well as preventive and anticipatory counseling are also examined. Lastly, the gaps in preservice preparation and inservice training programs are identified in terms of the counselor's role as a psychoecologist achieving a goodness-of-fit between the child's responses and the socializing demands of the system.